CURRICULUM JOURNAL

VOLUME 11: NUMBER 8 DECEMBER, 1940

NEWS NOTES

Novel Approach in Curriculum Course. An unusual feature of the course in "Curriculum Construction," given at Stanford University during the summer of 1940, was the organization of a fictitious community called Median Valley, which represented the median community from which the members of the class came. At the opening session of the class, committees were organized to prepare a brief statement about the conditions and situations in Median Valley that would influence the development of a satisfactory curriculum program for that community. The combined committees produced a forty-page statement that presented the location and topography, the commercial and industrial status, the social status, the attitude toward schools, the health program in schools and community, and the school organization—including location and size of buildings, and description of personnel, together with a statement of the attitude of the school leaders toward their jobs and their fellow workers. Since the class membership consisted of educators interested in all types of curriculum problems from many types of communities, the committees attempted to make Median Valley "typical" rather than unusual.

Next, problems were presented that were to be discussed on scheduled days by a committee from the class and one or more experts chosen from the entire summer session faculty. Such questions as "How shall we deal with the public in the beginning of our curriculum program in Median Valley?" and "Shall we have a scope and sequence?" "Shall we have an integrated program in the elementary school?" "How shall we organize the secondary curriculum?" were discussed. Meetings were held for two hours three times a week and were preceded by small group sessions. The class members chose the problems for study in which they were interested. These persons met as committees two times a week. The committee functions included (1) studying their problems, (2) meeting with the faculty members before their scheduled presentation, (3) conducting the discussion with the faculty members before the class on days scheduled, (4) preparing their recommendations for Median Valley. These recommendations were mimeographed and distributed at the final session. At the end of the scheduled discussions, one of the two faculty members who met regularly with the group gave a summarization of the discussion. Evaluation of the individual class member was made according to the desire of the student. This could take the form of a report on some individual curriculum problem or on professional growth through reading, or, more frequently, of a thirty-minute conference with one of the two instructors.

Curriculum Laboratory at the University of Connecticut. The University of Connecticut organized a curriculum laboratory in the spring of 1939

for the purpose of extending curriculum services throughout the state. The Director of the Laboratory is Fred Couey. The equipment of the laboratory includes about one thousand selected courses of study, a complete textbook library, and a collection of unit materials. Consultant services were supplied to the state curriculum committees which were organized in 1939 through the State Department of Education. This service will be considerably extended in the future. Five bulletins were issued throughout the state free of charge to the schools in Connecticut. Considerable work was done with individual schools.

Proposed work for 1940 includes the following three items: (1) The establishment of a regional curriculum laboratory in the Hartford area. This laboratory is unique in that it will include faculties of several schools and will be established on a permanent basis. (2) Continuation of bulletins representing research done by Connecticut teachers in curriculum. (3) Cooperative work with the State Audio-Visual Education Association.

University of Wyoming Curriculum Workshop. Among the innovations introduced by Dean O. C. Schwiering, director of the 1940 summer school at the University of Wyoming, was a workshop for the study and exchange of experiences on curriculum problems. The workshop was held in the University Library, where a supply of curriculum materials, many of which were supplied by the State Department of Education, had been made available. A group of home economics teachers, under the leadership of the state director, Miss Pauline H. Drollinger, worked on the revision of the state course of study. Superintendents and principals worked on administrative curriculum projects, while classroom teachers set up departmental and teaching objectives for their particular schools. In several cases experimental procedures were formulated to be tried out during the school year. Several members of the faculty and visiting lecturers were made available as consultants for the group. At the close of the workshop period a brief report was issued, an abstract of which may be obtained by writing Mr. H. R. Meyering, the director of the workshop, at the Teachers College of Kansas City, Missouri. A similar workshop is now being planned for the first term of the 1941 summer session.

Projects of the Committee on Rural Education. A rural school supervisory demonstration project in McDonough County, Illinois, a rural community high schools project in Wisconsin, and a field service project for the cultural improvement of rural teachers in service in Missouri are activities launched by the Committee on Rural Education during the first year of its existence. The Committee, which was organized in March, 1939, has selected from among the many problems of rural education two main activities: first, the growth and development of rural children and youth as achieved through school curriculum, techniques of teaching, and out-of-school experiences; and second, the promotion of better understanding by rural adults of the difficulties confronting rural schools, and ways and means by which these difficulties may be overcome. The Committee hopes to achieve its pur-

poses through cooperation with existing educational agencies and through bringing about needed coordination of effort directed toward the common goal of improving rural life. The Committee consists of nine members appointed by the American Country Life Association and supported financially by the Farm Foundation of Chicago. The headquarters of the Committee are in Chicago, 600 South Michigan Avenue.

Curriculum Program of the Arkansas State Department of Education. The Arkansas Cooperative Program to Improve Instruction initiated in 1933 has been in continuous operation since that date. Since 1936 the state curriculum program has been concerned primarily with the preparation of state courses of study and the further development of a teacher education program in harmony with the curriculum of the public schools. The curriculum development program is under the general direction of a committee consisting of the supervisory staff in the State Department of Education, of which Dr. M. R. Owens, State Supervisor of High Schools, is chairman. The teacher education program is under the direction of T. M. Stinnett, State Director of Teacher Education and Certification. Each summer the University of Arkansas, in cooperation with the State Department of Education, conducts a curriculum workshop, in which state courses of study for use in public schools are prepared by carefully selected teachers, administrators, supervisors, and representatives of lay groups. These workshops are directed by Dean H. G. Hotz, with Dr. M. R. Owens, Chairman of the Curriculum Committee and State Supervisor of High Schools, and W. F. Hall, State Supervisor of Elementary Schools, serving as general curriculum consultants. Staff members of the College of Education act as special consultants. A curriculum workshop for Negroes is conducted each summer at the A. M. and N. College at Pine Bluff under the supervision of Ed McCuistion, State Supervisor of Negro Schools.

Since 1938 state courses of study for elementary and secondary schools have been prepared in the curriculum workshop at the University of Arkansas in: *Public School Art; Health, Safety, and Physical Education;* and *Nature Study and Conservation of Natural Resources.* Cooperating with the Curriculum Committee, the State Planning Board has acted, during the past year, as the coordinator of an extensive project in which all agencies in the state, which are working in the field of natural resources, have participated in the preparation of a comprehensive volume entitled *A Source Book on Natural Resources in Arkansas,* a book to accompany the course of study in *Nature Study and Conservation of Natural Resources.* The same agencies which cooperated in writing the source book were represented in the Curriculum Workshop at the University of Arkansas during the summer of 1940 in producing the state course of study in *Nature Study and Conservation,* which is now being mimeographed in tentative form for use in a limited number of schools this year, after which it will be revised during the summer of 1941 and printed for general distribution. In the Curriculum Workshop at the A. M. & N. College a course of study in the

field of personal and community health for Negroes has been produced under the general supervision of Ed McCuistion, State Supervisor of Negro Schools.

A Summer Course in Health Education. During the past summer, a course in health education was arranged for a group of elementary grade teachers from the Michigan Community Health Project area[1] through the cooperation of the University of Michigan and the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. The work during the six-week session was centered in the school system of Marshall, Michigan, a city of 5,019. A faculty of six included a physician with public health training, two educators with training in public health education, and three classroom teachers in the Laboratory School. Many leaders from the community helped with certain phases of the work.

The Health Education Center provided a variety of experiences to meet the needs and interests indicated by the group. Teachers spent their mornings observing and helping in three classrooms of the Laboratory School. Children from the city of Marshall were enrolled in this school. Although the experiences of these children were broad in scope, the science and health aspects of learning situations were emphasized. At an early meeting with parents of the children it was learned that they, too, wanted help with problems in the child health field. To meet this request, work with parents became an important part of the summer course.

Various phases of public health and personal hygiene were taken up during the afternoon sessions. As a part of this work, many problems, as well as the available resources existing in the community, were observed and studied. Some of the areas studied included sanitation and sewage disposal methods, the production and pasteurization of milk, community hospital facilities, housing situations, environmental problems in schools, recreational facilities, a community library, the work of a county and state health department, communicable disease control, nutrition with particular reference to the school lunch, food handling practices, and the medical and dental health program in the community.

An evaluation of the work at the end of the six-week period indicated that changes had taken place in attitudes, concepts, and practices in many areas of health and science. This work was directed by Vivian V. Drenckhahn, lecturer in health education, University of Michigan.

Correspondence Between American and Foreign Children. The International Friendship League, Incorporated, was organized ten years ago for the purpose of promoting better understanding among the school children of the world through personal correspondence. Through the departments of education in eighty-six countries and territories, long lists of names, ages, and addresses, as well as special interests of boys and girls who are anxious to have pen friends in the United States are sent to League headquarters to be distributed through the League to school children in this country. Up to this time it has been esti-

[1]The work in the seven-county area in southwestern Michigan, served by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is known as the Michigan Community Health Project.

mated that several million letters have been exchanged. Foreign letters bring the ever-changing fascination of the world's lands and peoples to the school children. Practically all the correspondence is done in the English language because English is being taught in the schools throughout the world. The League estimates that five million letters have been exchanged up to this time. However, the rest of the world is cooperating and the South American countries are showing particular interest and enthusiasm. If teachers will write to the League office enclosing self-addressed stamped envelopes, full material will be sent. Names of teachers in the district who have cooperated with the League in the past will be sent on request. Letters should be addressed to: The International Friendship League, Incorporated, 41 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

Exchange of Students with Other American Republics. Under the terms of the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, the United States has now arranged exchanges of students and professors with nine of the American republics. Ten graduate students from the other American republics have been selected for study in the United States and four additional students will soon be chosen. Eight graduate students and three professors from the United States have been invited to study and teach in other American countries. These arrangements have been made between the United States and the Governments of Chile, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, and Venezuela. In addition, the United States has been informed that the Governments of Brazil and Peru will undertake similar arrangements in the near future. Plans for these exchanges have been worked out jointly by the Department of State and the Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency.

Committee on Latin-American Studies. The Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association is acting as an informal clearinghouse of information concerning Latin-American studies in the elementary and secondary schools. The committee is without financial support at the present time, but is looking forward to official recognition and financial help from the National Education Association. It distributes a newsletter which may be secured by addressing the chairman of the National Committee on Latin-American Studies, Ernesto Galarza, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. The most recent newsletter reports that Chester W. Holmes is preparing a course on Latin America for teachers in service at the request of Superintendent Ballou of the Washington, D. C., Public Schools.

Cooperation in Science Teaching. The Bureau of Educational Research in Science of Teachers College, Columbia University, is continuing its experimentation and evaluation on a cooperative basis with schools under an additional three-year grant from the General Education Board. This program involves a group of twelve schools in which arrangements have been made for teachers from the science departments to try out the plans

and methods suggested by the Bureau and to participate in the activities of the Curriculum Workshop, which is sponsored each summer by the Progressive Education Association with assistance from the Bureau. Throughout the academic year the cooperating teachers have the benefit of advice and materials from a competent staff of scientists and evaluators in residence at Teachers College and from a traveling representative. *The Control of Organisms,* by F. L. Fitzpatrick, is now available in the "Science in Modern Living" Series. *Suggestions for Teaching Selected Material from the Field of Sex Responsiveness, Mating, and Reproduction,* by Anita D. Laton and Edna W. Bailey, is in press and will be ready for distribution about the first of November.

Progress in Curriculum Revision in Brockton. The school system of Brockton, Massachusetts, is engaged in three distinct curriculum revision enterprises. The new arithmetic course of study for the elementary school is being installed throughout the city. This introduction follows a three-year program of cooperative study among all members of the faculty as well as outside specialists. The revision of the health course of study for Grades I-XII, which was started last year, will be continued as committees define specific practices consistent with aims and principles already formulated. Professor Clair E. Turner of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has served as consultant. A thorough review of English experiences desirable for developing boys and girls of the elementary schools is now being launched. Already the English course of study for the Junior High School has been scrutinized and revised on a functional basis. All curriculum study is guided by local general committees composed of administrators, supervisors, teachers, and, in the case of the health committee, members of the medical profession.

Yearbook on Economic Education. The title of the Eleventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies is *Economic Education.* The book is concerned not only with economics courses, but also with the economic content of other branches of instruction. The first half of the volume will deal with curriculum problems in economic education; the second half will consider methods and materials. An extensive survey of the current status of economic instruction on the elementary, secondary, and junior college levels contains the research findings of four collaborators. Other chapters give specific suggestions for using motion pictures, graphs, charts, pamphlets, and field trips in economic education. The concluding chapter contains an annotated list of pamphlet materials for use in teaching economics. Contributors are: Henry Harap, Ruth Gavian, Wilbur Gooch, Alpheus Marshall, Eugene Riley, John Cassels, Leon Marshall, Gordon McCloskey, Edward Thorndike, V. C. Arnspiger, G. H. Griffiths, Rudolph Modley, Edgar Bye, Archie Troelstrup, and Harold Clark, editor.

Guide for the Teaching of Mathematics, Grades 7, 8, and 9. The Minneapolis Public Schools have introduced recently a guide for the teaching of

mathematics in Grades 7, 8, and 9. The program is organized around ten strands which are: appreciation and historical aspects of mathematics; financial relationships of the individual, home, and community; measurement of common standards; statistical and graphical representation; records; percentage and its application; equations and allied concept; ratio and proportion; informal geometry; and maintenance of skills. The work of each grade includes a series of units, suggested tests, and a maintenance program.

Cultivates Awareness of Regional Problems. The Northwest Regional Council, a private non-profit organization composed of civic and educational leaders of this region, is concerned with creating a greater awareness of major current regional problems. Besides granting financial aid to research on socio-economic and natural resource problems, the Council is engaged in preparing readable, stimulating, and accurate materials which contain this contemporary research. It represents a practical effort to aid in bringing into the classroom, at all levels, the realities of everyday living as soon as they occur. The Council, which is directed by Kenneth O. Warner, maintains an office in the Bedell Building, Portland, Oregon.

Ways of Improving the Secondary Curriculum. According to J. Cecil Parker, Director of the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, the more promising ways of working to improve the curriculum seem to be those which involve active participation of every member of a school faculty in (1) studying the individual pupil, (2) studying the nature of the learning process, (3) developing closer relationships between activities in the school and life in the community, (4) developing and using procedures of evaluation, and (5) developing increased competence with techniques and processes of cooperative thinking and group effort.

American Association of Teachers Colleges Studies Experimental Teachers Colleges. The American Association of Teachers Colleges has appointed President Engleman of New Haven and Doctor Matthews of Denton to visit the seven teachers colleges involved in the Commission's Cooperative Study of Teacher Education and to draft a report regarding activities relating to this study. These men will spend at least three days in each of the seven institutions as well as at the Collaboration Center on Child Development which is being operated by the Commission in Chicago. The report of the visitors will be printed and distributed to the members of the Association about February 1 and will be discussed at the meeting organized by the Commission in which organizations interested in the education of teachers cooperate.

Office of Education Series on Conservation. Three units in a series of publications, including four bulletins and several bibliographies on teaching conservation in the elementary school, have recently come from the press. *Curriculum Content in Conservation for Elementary Schools,* United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1939, Number 14, is designed to suggest

educative values of conservation in their relation to curriculum content. It includes annotated sources of information. *Teaching Conservation in the Elementary Schools*, Office of Education Bulletin, 1938, Number 14, a companion bulletin, aims to assist teachers in the selection, adaptation, and organization of material for teaching conservation in Grades 1 to 7 or 8. A unique feature of the bulletin is an outline in tabular form of illustrative activities in conservation classified under the following areas of experience: home and schools; farms and factories; community life. Suggestive activities are described under each heading adapted to: primary pupils, Grades 1 to 3; intermediate pupils, Grades 4 to 6; advanced pupils, Grades 6 to 8. A third bulletin in the series, *Conservation Excursions*, United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1939, Number 13, is devoted to suggestions to teachers on planning and carrying out conservation excursions.

Conference on Education for the Gifted. In memory of Leta S. Hollingworth, a conference on education for the gifted will be held at Teachers College, Columbia University, on December 13 and 14, 1940. The theme of the conference is "The Education of Leaders in a Democracy." Speakers include: Edward L. Thorndike, Professor Emeritus of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; William F. Russell, Dean of Teachers College; Rudolf Pintner, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Herbert B. Bruner, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman of the conference. Katherine R. Clarke of the Speyer School will give a demonstration of a class of rapid learners. Approximately fifteen seminars will be held. Other phases of the conference are exhibits, clinics, and motion pictures. The following cities will send exhibits: Cleveland, Baltimore, New York, and Allentown, Pennsylvania. Other cities will present demonstrations by the gifted blind, deaf, crippled, and others.

Activities in Curriculum in Buffalo, New York. The curriculum for the elementary division is organized by the supervisory staff of the Buffalo Public Schools, and it is undergoing continuous improvement. This reorganization is directed by the supervisory staff assisted by principals and teachers; there is no separate curriculum bureau or division. In the past two years the social studies curriculum for the primary grades has been completely revised. It is largely a reading and activity program utilizing material from geography, history, and the local community. It approaches a fusion course as actually used in the grades.

In the intermediate grades the most recent curriculum improvement has been in the language arts program. Part I of the course of study in the language arts, *Language*, came from the press in April, 1940. It is to be followed by a similar treatment for reading, penmanship, and spelling. While each of these topics is treated as an entity, the whole program is considered a language arts program with subject matter divisions not compartmentalized. The program for geography in Grade 4 will be revised following somewhat the plan indicated

for the curriculum in the social studies, Grades 1 through 3.

The secondary schools use the New York State Syllabi in the various high school subjects. These syllabi are prepared under the supervision of the Education Department in Albany. However, general science has just been introduced into Grade 8 in Buffalo and the science supervisor prepared and issued a syllabus for general science instruction for that grade in September, 1940.

Conference on Production of School-Made Films. A conference on the school production of films was held recently on the campus of Ohio State University. The production of films in Denver, sponsored by the American Council on Education, utilizing community resources, was the subject of discussion by Floyde Brooker. Edgar Dale described the safety project, sponsored by the Highway Education Board, in which thirteen traffic safety films were produced in cooperation with ten schools in Ohio and West Virginia. F. W. Davis, Department of Photography, Ohio State University, outlined the organization and administration of a university film production service such as the service at Ohio State University. Godfrey Elliott, Oakvale, West Virginia, Schools, discussed film production and community relations. Other speakers discussed the production of color films, scientific films, the technical problems, in general, involved in such school activity. Opportunities were made available for viewing many of the school-produced films.

Brief Items. The Commission on Curricula of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has announced that the following teaching units for the high school are ready for printing: How We Make Up Our Minds, Youth and Employment, and Government and Business. * * * The Latin-American Supplement to the October, 1940, issue of *Film News* contains a list of forty-six films on Latin America. * * * The Committee on Workshops and Field Service of the Progressive Education Association has been absorbed as a service of the Commission on Teacher Education and the office moved from the Cooperative Bureau of Educational Research in Michigan to Northwestern University. * * * Kenneth L. Heaton has moved to Northwestern University, where he will devote part of his time to the directing of the workshop program of the Commission on Teacher Education and the remainder in the development of a research program for the University. * * * Gary, Indiana, is at present concentrating on the improvement of teaching of social studies. The teachers in this division are analyzing the objectives for the various subjects in this field. This will be followed by a revision of the teaching materials.

STIMULATING TEACHER GROWTH[1]

By CLARK H. STONE
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ALL TEACHERS have within them the potential ability to increase their effectiveness as teachers. They need but to be placed in a situation where they can receive satisfaction for so doing. They need to be stimulated and led in the right direction, evaluating their present effectiveness and in making whatever changes then become necessary. In-service training of teachers is, therefore, a necessity and can be considered only as a continuous process. The principal is the one most responsible for seeing that this training takes place.

In our school we started with a discussion, led by the principal, of world affairs, of dictators and democracies, local tax budgets and teachers' salaries, etc. Implications relative to the importance of the democratic way of life and of the resultant responsibilities of individuals and groups were drawn. Problems, relative to a democratic school situation, discussed as a result of these implications were those of discipline, responsibilities of teacher and pupils, excusing pupils from scheduled classes to work elsewhere and similar questions, agreement, etc. Agreement in general principles was soon found to crack under the impact of more definite questions.

In order that these and other related questions might receive careful consideration, it seemed advisable to break the faculty into smaller groups. The schedule has been revised to give teachers working with one group of pupils a "free" period each day. Provisions had been made that these groups of teachers could all work together if necessary. Meetings of these combined groups were put under the chairmanship of the boys' adviser who was an accepted leader in the school. The teachers had not been "selected." How had they been chosen? Simply on the basis that they were working with certain classes and that the schedule could be arranged for them to meet in committees. Within these limits some efforts were made to get those who might represent a *divergence* of opinion.

Other teachers were invited to attend the meeting of these committees, but because of lack of time or of interest they did not come. However, when the committees reached the conclusion that certain areas of living could best be taught in general education classes and made such a recommendation, the faculty of thirty-seven teachers broke up into three smaller groups to discuss the recommendation. These groups, which met at the regular faculty meeting time, elected their own chairmen. Each group included some of the members of the committees who had been working during school time. After three meetings of this kind the groups accepted the recommendation. However, many questions were raised and referred to the committees for further study.

Faculty members were urged to read widely. One of the teachers who had a little time during the day surveyed the field of professional magazines

[1]This article represents one of the projects stimulated by the Eight-Year Study. The Commission in charge of this study will present a final report within the next two years.

taken by the staff. He then made a magazine rack which was placed in an accessible place in the office and developed a form which could be stapled to the magazine covers. On this form the teacher who lent the magazine indicated the articles which he considered especially worth reading.

Our school system was also fortunate in having for a week or two the services of members of the curriculum and evaluation staffs from the Eight-Year Study. Clinics were conducted each morning for a week by the members of these staffs. These clinics brought together representatives from all the secondary schools in Denver and, therefore, also served as clearing-houses. Several members of the committee attended these clinics.

The decision of the faculty to start all incoming 7B's on a program which was to include general education made it imperative that more members of the faculty should become involved in the planning. Discussion by the groups indicated that general education would absorb some of the club activities. The school program was, therefore, overhauled in such a way that half of the faculty was released from club duties to work as a group in school time on the development of methods and materials for the general education program. This was made possible by the inclusion of over one-third of all pupils in the travel club program (educational movies). Pupils were pleased with the new program and a large group of teachers gained thirty minutes of school time, to which were added forty-five minutes immediately following dismissal, giving the group one hour and fifteen minutes of uninterrupted time in which to work on their problems.

We were also very fortunate in having at our disposal the services of two experienced teachers, who had been granted one-half time from their regular duties in other schools to help where needed. Both were invited to come to our meetings to help with the problems of determining needs of 7B pupils and to suggest ways to meet these needs. One of these teachers acted as leader and with the faculty group then developed units of work which were designed to meet needs of pupils. The whole process was very enlightening and really interesting to the teachers. The group worked extremely hard, but was very willing to do so because all recognized the problems involved and were much concerned about their solution.

It soon appeared necessary to have still more time and two plans were used to get it. First, the teachers volunteered to meet one morning each week before school; and second, to meet in three or four half-day meetings. These meetings were held during school time. The regular teachers were relieved through the teacher-training department of Denver University.

When the 7B's arrived in January, the seventeen or eighteen teachers involved in their program were ready. Each of the three sections of 7B's started out, of course, with the orientation unit. Previous teacher training had determined which part each teacher was to play; consequently, the adjustment of the pupils to the school was a very harmonious and happy one. The whole group of teachers has continued preparing units of work which will likely be needed in the near future. Time has been provided during the school day so that teachers con-

cerned with each section can meet and make definite plans for them. This time allowance was made possible largely through scheduling pupils in the library regularly, thus freeing teachers at certain periods. Close cooperation between the librarian and the teachers in each group is necessary under this plan, and it has worked very well with us.

When the unit on orientation was completed, together with the evaluation, the next step was to plan with pupils the work for the semester. A bulletin listing steps in teacher-pupil planning had been prepared. One of the experienced teachers mentioned above was invited to take one of the three sections and demonstrate the technique of such planning. Teachers working with other 7B groups observed the process and in the regular group meetings questioned and discussed the methods used. This plan has proved quite helpful and has served to give the knowledge and the skill which is so essential if the teachers are to receive the security that is absolutely necessary for good teaching.

All members of the faculty, as was stated before, had been invited to all meetings whether they were on the committee or not. After each meeting the minutes were mimeographed and given to each faculty member. As the need arose, reports and discussions were given in faculty meetings. A conscious effort has been made to see to it that teachers going to clinics, to committee meetings, and to visit other schools were selected from the whole faculty. Widespread representation is extremely important. This is the reason so many teachers are concerned with the first three sections of pupils to take up the general education program. As more pupils are received it will be better for the pupils and the faculty both to have fewer teachers working with each group of pupils.

After some discussion of our general philosophy and its importance in a democracy, it was proposed that the teachers should elect some representatives who would serve with the girls' and boys' advisers and the principal in determining school policies. It was decided to call this group the Grant School Policies Council. The number of teachers elected was six; the time of meeting was to be every Monday morning one hour before school. Some of the more important decisions made by the Council included: to do away with homerooms; to decide upon the responsibility of teachers for committee work of all kinds; to establish a definite visual aids program; and to establish a budget system in connection with the raising of funds, etc., for school purposes. It was decided that the Council should have power to act and that its decision on any matter was subject to review only by the faculty, which did so on two or three occasions. Of course, it was understood that the Council could not decide any question which involved a ruling by the school board. Teachers who cared to attended the Council, and several came to present a request or a point of view. The Council cared for many items of business which might have taken the time of the whole faculty in general meetings.

A school schedule which provided but twenty minutes for lunch did not contribute to the personal improvement and health of the teachers. Last fall we began to plan with the student council for a longer lunch period. In the council necessary steps were out-

lined. The whole plan was contingent upon developing in the pupils the ability to take care of a recreation period following the lunch period *without additional* faculty assignments. A teacher or two already had been assigned to supervise the lunchroom in each of three periods. The problem was to improve the conduct of pupils in the lunchroom and to insure that their conduct would be satisfactory in halls, recreation rooms, and grounds when the new program started. A unit of study was worked out by the student council, which furnished the list of "problems," and a faculty committee which organized these problems into teaching material. This unit was studied in every social science class in the building the week after the Christmas holidays. The plan was put into effect the following week after nearly a whole semester's preparation for it. A few adjustments were necessary, but, on the whole, the plan has served well and is popular with pupils and parents as well as teachers.

In any plan calculated to stimulate teacher growth it is imperative that all members of the faculty feel that they have a part in its development. No group of teachers should be left out. Speed is not so important as harmony and a sense of "belonging." Each member has a contribution to make and should feel that his ideas are wanted and will receive fair and impersonal treatment.

No faculty is without its own leadership and this leadership must be used. To serve most effectively the persons concerned must be given some time during the school day in which to do the extra work. Objections to any proposal must be given the same consideration as contributions calculated to promote the proposed program. Work well done means that real problems are solved, not glossed over or evaded.

Teachers and administrators are prone to forget that they have personal needs which should be cared for adequately. Time should be allowed for recreation and relaxation. Any program which takes too much of the teachers' time before or after school, if continued over any length of time, will result in a loss which may be greater than the gain.

Each school must work out its own salvation by using all devices possible. Teachers cannot be expected to grow very much in service unless time is provided in the schedule and plans are made definitely for that purpose. Democratic procedure is essential, but that does not mean that the principal should have no sense of direction or should have no plan whatsoever. Quite the contrary, he should have a plan, but democratic action means that this plan will be subject to frequent changes as the group progresses and determines succeeding steps.

THE ROLE OF THE LABORATORY SCHOOL IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

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THE PURPOSE of the investigation was to ascertain what types of curriculum organization prevalent in laboratory schools are maintained by state teachers colleges, what provisions they have for administration and organization of curriculum development, and the extent of leadership and services they render to state, county, city, and other groups engaged in public school curriculum development.

The materials on which the study is based were derived from a review of educational literature related to the problem, from personal visitation of twelve selected teacher-training institutions, and from a questionnaire sent to directors of laboratory schools which could not be visited personally. In addition, a study was made of catalogs, bulletins, and articles describing curriculum practices in various institutions. By these means data were secured for eighty-three laboratory schools maintained primarily for purposes of directed teaching or experimentation by state colleges accredited by the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

The findings were evaluated from the standpoint of the extent to which they conform to recommendations of curriculum and teacher education leaders in educational literature as well as the purposes for which the schools are established.

The major purposes of laboratory schools. Seventy-seven and one-tenth per cent of the respondents state that the major purpose for which laboratory schools are maintained is that of practice teaching; only twelve per cent regard practice teaching as a minor purpose. Other major purposes are: directing observation, 68.7 per cent; preliminary participation, 53 per cent; and demonstration, 50.6 per cent. In only a minority of the replies (a fifth or less) is the use of laboratory schools for such purposes as controlled experimentation, informal tryout of new ideas in curriculum, or testing of the validity of new educational theories mentioned as being of major importance.

These latter uses of laboratory schools, which are given a place of minor consideration in the schools included in this investigation, are regarded as very essential and important functions of laboratory schools by most teacher education authorities. The use of laboratory schools for practice teaching is a function which these authorities contend should be consigned to affiliated schools.

Types of curriculum organization in laboratory schools. In over one-half of the schools in the investigation the subject type of organization is still the major form of organization of the curriculum. Approximately a fourth report using the broad-fields type of organization. Only a small number report having either the core or the activity concepts of organization. Where these types of organization are used, it is generally in the lower levels or grades rather than in the upper grades or secondary levels. Though

only a small number of schools are using the activity type of curriculum organization, the majority of schools report extensive use of activities of the "doing" type for purpose of enriching and vitalizing the subjects of instruction.

These findings suggest that too many of the laboratory schools are not utilizing the opportunity they have of assuming a place of leadership in exemplification of latest trends in curriculum organization.

Factors controlling curriculum organization. The presence of state laws specifying the subjects which must be taught in public schools serves as a major influence in determining the type of curriculum organization used in 16.8 per cent of the laboratory schools; 67.2 per cent state that they exert some influence. State laws are mentioned as being of major influence in schools using the subject type of organization two and one-half times more frequently than by those using other types of organization. Factors such as state-wide textbook adoptions, state examinations, university entrance requirements, regulations of state departments of education, and accrediting association requirements are not regarded as major determinants of the type of curriculum organization used except by one-tenth or less of the respondents. Full control over curriculum policies by teacher education officials is reported by nearly one-half of the respondents. Such control, however, is mentioned by only two out of every five schools using the subject type of organization as compared with three out of five using other forms of organization.

These findings suggest that the presence of state laws specifying the subjects which must be taught in public schools, and the absence of full control over curriculum policies of the laboratory school by teacher education officials, act as deterrents to curriculum reorganization.

Use of courses of study. Thirty-six and two-tenths per cent of the laboratory schools make little or no use of courses of study; 32.5 per cent use a state course of study; 7.2 per cent use a course of study especially constructed for laboratory schools and 3.6 per cent use a local public school course of study; 20.5 per cent report a variety of practices ranging from no use of courses of study in some departments of the school to much use in others. Less than one-half report provision of any special helps to facilitate the use of courses of study by student teachers.

If teachers are to be expected to use courses of study effectively in public schools, more opportunities to gain experience in their use should be provided in laboratory schools than is at present given.

The leadership role played by laboratory schools in behalf of public school curriculum development. Approximately one-eighth of the laboratory schools maintain sessions on Saturdays for the benefit of teachers in the field who cannot come in to observe during regular weekdays. One-third maintain sessions during teachers conventions and institutes, and a small number report having special days when teachers in the field are invited to come in to see the laboratory school program in action. Few have any arrangements whereby teachers in the field can see experiments in progress or receive help and advice in connection

with experimentation in their own schools.

Forty-one per cent report they have staff members who serve as consultants in state programs of curriculum development, and 34.8 per cent have staff members who are in major positions of service or leadership on committees engaged in curriculum development for the state. Only a small number report participation in county or local public school programs of curriculum development.

About one-fourth of the schools report that they aid state programs of curriculum development by trying out courses of study and demonstrating their application in classroom practice before they are recommended for statewide adoption.

Very few have curriculum laboratories where either their own staffs or teachers in the field can gather to work on problems of curriculum development.

More extensive participation of laboratory schools in state-wide curriculum improvement than is the practice at present is necessary if curriculum improvement is to make progress.

Curriculum development in laboratory schools. Less than one-half, or 44.6 per cent of laboratory schools are engaged in curriculum development. In only 27.7 per cent of the schools is curriculum development being conducted on an organized basis. Where schools are actually engaged in curriculum development, the entire range of grades is included. In thirty per cent of the schools the purpose of curriculum development is basic reconstruction of the curriculum. In the remainder, the purpose is to revise, refine, and improve, or enrich the existing curriculum rather than to effect a basic reconstruction.

The trend of reconstruction is toward adoption of the core type of curriculum organization in 34.8 per cent of the schools, broad-fields in 21.7 per cent and the activity or experience concept of organization in 17.4 per cent of the schools. Some are in a transitional stage and are not certain just what form of organization will be adopted.

Organization and administration of curriculum development. Less than one-half of the institutions have provisions whereby college staffs participate with laboratory school staffs in curriculum development. Nearly a third of the schools engaged in curriculum development do not have any committees, the work being done either by the staff working as a committee of the whole, or by individuals. Where committees are used, committees which are administrative in function are three times as frequent as are production committees. Committee meetings as well as meetings of the faculty as a whole are generally held after school and on call rather than according to a definite schedule. Leadership and initiative in laboratory school curriculum development more often falls upon the director of the laboratory school than it does upon any other one individual, but a wide variety of practice is reported. Many aspects of curriculum development which, according to curriculum authorities should be responsibilities of individuals, are designated as responsibilities of committees or the staff as a whole in the laboratory schools included in this study.

Curriculum development should be a joint enterprise of both college and

laboratory school staffs. While much of curriculum development can be done by the staff as a whole, organization of the staff into committees for performance of certain functions, especially those having to do with production of curriculum materials, is likely to prove more effective in results. The findings suggest that while laboratory school staffs are giving considerable thought to the problem of curriculum reconstruction, they are not actually producing much in the way of usable curriculum materials. If curriculum development is made a joint enterprise of college and laboratory schools, initiative and responsibility for launching the program might more properly be the function of the president and a curriculum council rather than of the director of the laboratory school and his staff, as it tends to be in existing practice.

Curriculum experimentation. Approximately one-fourth of the laboratory schools engage in some sort of curriculum experimentation. For such a small percentage to be so engaged means that large numbers of student teachers have little or no opportunity to acquire firsthand knowledge of, or experience in the techniques of experimentation. It also means that laboratory schools are contributing little in the way of new knowledge about curriculum practice.

Obstacles encountered in attempts at curriculum development. By far the most frequently mentioned problem in curriculum development is that of finding time to engage in curriculum work. In descending order the other major problems are: training the staff for effective participation in curriculum development; securing the cooperation of instructors in college departments; and the small size of laboratory school staffs. Many other problems are also mentioned, but they are confined to one-fourth or less of the schools in the investigation.

While these may seem like serious problems to schools which wish to undertake curriculum improvement, they are for the most part within the control of the teacher-training institutions themselves, and, therefore, not insurmountable.

Conclusion. The findings indicate that, as a general rule, laboratory schools are not attacking the problem of general curriculum improvement. By their failure to do so, student teachers are not gaining anything from contacts with the laboratory school curriculum which cannot be obtained in affiliated schools. The major recommendation of the study suggests that teacher-training institutions in their laboratory schools ought to be constantly engaged in curriculum development in order to discover and exemplify for student teachers, as well as teachers in the field, the very best and most advanced types of curriculum practices.

SEMANTICS AND THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS

By CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG
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THE SEMANTIC discipline will not usher in a new heaven and a new earth. Intelligently and consistently applied, however, it will in the end accomplish what it sets out to do, namely, clarify the thinking process and introduce order and sanity into the use of words. Its fundamental postulates are as simple as the alphabet and as plain as a pikestaff. The semanticist would begin first of all by making us realize that words are not things. Acceptance of this elementary proposition—the denial of the law of identity—has troublesome and far-reaching consequences. For if words are not things, then observe what follows. Words cease to be things in themselves; they lose their compulsive, hypnotic quality; they are no longer essences and entities; they become symbols which can be shifted about and invested with a fluid variety of meanings.

What gives a word its meaning is not a dictionary or an Academy of Letters or a Board of Correct Usage. The situation in which words appear determines their configuration of meaning, which is not, and cannot be, antecedent to the act of expression. Symbols are associated with things and events experienced. The further we get away from the setting of experience, the more we tend to resort to abstractions; and when that happens the danger is all the greater that we may lose connection with the experiential source of meaning. For the law of identity is dethroned by the perception that no two events can be considered completely similar. In order to avoid using abstractions that are false, we must rely upon the relationships that events themselves disclose. We must use words with caution and skill, with a knowledge of their plasticity, their power to disguise as well as project meaning.

All this brings sharply into focus the crucial problem of developing a sound and efficient system of communication, a system of scientifically coordinated terms. Mistakes, misunderstandings, confusion, false reasoning, prejudice, superstition, uncontrolled emotionalism, verbal rant: the first task of semantics will be to sweep all this away as with a vigorous broom.

Thinking must be tied up with doing. Concepts must be tested, developed, and rendered flexible and precise by long practice. Just as in science, knowledge must be acquired by living, by action, by experience. There is no other way. Experience is the sole guide in the realm of conduct as in the sphere of language and thought. But if we are to free ourselves from infantile habits of thought, we must do more than study and react to external events; we must learn what takes place within the human organism when it seeks to translate these events into words. The problem is to devise different systems of abstraction, each of which will fit the world around us.

The sane, semantic process begins first with the object, the thing, the event, which is literally *unspeakable*. This is succeeded by the level on which

we see with our eyes. The third level results in the formation of a semantic reaction, which is followed, on the fourth level, by verbalization. The final step gives us inference.

The object of semantics in education is to contribute to this understanding and control. Our environment is conditioned in part by what we know and believe, our attitudes, our values, our truths. Once the old linguistic structure is drastically revised, the old doctrines and metaphysics will die of inanition. For theories are always linguistic in nature. Since the method of abstraction is inherent in the human nervous system, each one of us is filled with different kinds of theories. That is inescapable. The semantic goal is to select those theories which correspond to experience, which can be empirically tested and confirmed.

The art of teaching semantics is not so difficult as it seems. Even the adolescent can discover with a growing sense of wonder that a word is not a thing, and thus cut the Gordian knot of a controversy that baffled some of the best minds of the Middle Ages. What conceals this truth from our eyes is the veil of habit. We use words almost as "naturally" as we eat and walk, sleep and think. Hence, the apparent unity of word and thing, substance and symbol, experience and idea. Language, like grass and trees, waters and skies and hills, is an organic part of creation. It enormously simplifies the communicative process. Words can magically take the place of objects and events. The sound is enough; the ejaculation is the thing. We babble of green fields or of totalitarianism, communism, liberty, the home, purity, morality, apples, and electrons without having anything except a hazy conception of what we wish to say. The referent is lost in the verbal fog.

For ordinary purposes of discourse, such an approach is unnecessarily laborious. In order to make themselves understood in most of the daily situations that arise, people do not require that degree of communicative efficacy. If we stopped to measure and evaluate the precise implications of each word uttered, communication would become virtually impossible. We would all become tongue-tied. We are therefore satisfied with a rough and ready approximation, with grasping only a portion of our neighbor's intended meaning. All this has an important bearing on the question at issue. If the adults of the community abuse the language function in that way, what hope is there for the young? If gold rusts, what will iron do?

Differences become momentous only when they affect our life. Chairs are material conveniences, and when they serve the purpose for which they are designed, they can be safely left standing in the background. The important thing is to have the student not only grasp the distinction made, but actually apply it in all the problems that confront him. While men will not, as a rule, quarrel over chairs and tables, there are doctrines and beliefs over which they are prepared, if necessary, to shed blood. If they do not discriminate in the use of symbols referring to material objects, how will they behave when discourse rises to a higher level of abstraction? How will it be when they come to terms like "religion," "God," "freedom," "free will," "fate," "happiness," "human

nature," and numerous other abstractions?

It is absolutism of thought or speech that must be eliminated. Clearly if "justice" and "truth" and "goodness" and "beauty" are infinite-valued, they do not exist in and of themselves. There is no such thing as Justice, Truth, Goodness, or Beauty. Once the student has been semantically educated, he will no longer persist in asking questions for which there is no possible empirical answer. Released from the absolutism of thought, he will realize the need for self-analysis, self-evaluation. He will outgrow the childhood of fancy and dreams and wishful thinking for the maturity, never completely achieved, of observation, suspended judgment, and quantitative reasoning.

Suppleness and skill in thinking can be developed by keeping steadily in mind the opposite conceptual pole of each difficult general term: egotism and altruism, the social and the individual, capitalist and proletariat. Some concepts can be used in a number of related, but distinct and even conflicting senses. Students can be trained to exercise their ingenuity on terms like "natural," "democracy," "right," "socialism," "Fascism," and so on, the choice depending on their centers of interest. When some progress has been made in this direction, they are ready to undertake a more ambitious task: the examination of powerfully entrenched and emotionally stirring ideas.

Composition work, under the new dispensation, will no longer be pointless. It will do more than acquaint the student with the rudiments of rhetoric, the mechanics of expression. It will have purpose, meaning, direction, continuity. The object of instruction will be to choose vital units of experience—experiences which the student finds vital. From these the last atom of semantic significance can be distilled. In this way the multiplicity of meanings inherent in numerous abstractions will gradually betray themselves; a host of competitive doctrines and definitions will clamor for attention. The student gradually realizes that a doctrine is capable of many diverse and conflicting interpretations, that it does not exist as a separate identifiable essence, that when we fervently declare our intention to die for it we should first make sure that we "know" what we are dying for.

Freed from the cultural compulsives of his social environment, the semanticist studies the community mores and norms objectively, analytically, even skeptically. He is at heart a relativist. He attaches no indwelling sanctity to the symbol. He is aware how meaningless and misleading are many established abstractions. He regards learning as involving, principally, an experimental attitude and activity. It is an effort to perceive relationships, to achieve unified understanding and integrated growth.

Guided by such objectives, the pupil in his written work will not allow words to take the place of ideas and experiences. He will not put pen to paper until he has something to say; he must be fairly well informed on the subject he is writing about. The important thing is not adherence to mechanical rules, but the vivid perception of meaning, the ordering of relationships, and the effective transfer of these to the composition. In order to write well, the pupil must have a fund

of experience to draw upon. There is a profound educational moral in Dewey's remark: "An ounce of experience is better than a ton of theory simply because it is only in experience that any theory has vital and verifiable significance. An experience, a very humble experience, is capable of generating and carrying any amount of theory (or intelligent content), but a theory apart from an experience cannot be definitely grasped even as theory."[1]

The schools have done little enough to encourage and develop sound, independent thinking. Ideas as such cannot be passed on from person to person. They must first be experienced to be known. The pupil must confront the problem, out of which the idea subsequently emerges. All the teacher can do is to set the stage and then allow the principal characters to play their part. More specifically, pupils can be asked to "spot" the catch phrases in popular usage which do not convey any definite meaning. They can guard against the appearance of these stereotypes in their own thinking and writing. What is more, semantic exercises can be devised which will serve to neutralize their habit of viewing a problem from one fixed point of view. They must be trained to consider points of view diametrically opposed to the ones they habitually hold. If their beliefs are to be based on reasoned and empirically valid assumptions, they must at all times be prepared to assail their dearest convictions and also to have them assailed. The ability to withstand these attacks is a test of the strength and validity of these beliefs. The determination to seek the truth at all costs is a moral quality which the schools have fearfully kept under lock and key. The safeguarding of vested "truths" against the spirit of free critical inquiry has been falsely regarded as the proper function of the educational system. In addition, there has been the fear on the part of parents and teachers that radical skepticism would have a harmful effect on the impressionable minds of the young. On the contrary, the tearing apart of deeply rooted habits of thought, the analysis of ideas and beliefs, the search for meaning, would in the long run prove beneficial. To negate our own beliefs, as a test of their validity, is a salutary discipline, especially for the young.

The study of semantics is concerned with no specific subject matter; it includes practically every branch of knowledge that is dependent on language as a medium of expression. Concretely, the science of semantics analyzes the nature and use of symbols, its aim being to purify linguistic usage and make it correspond with reality.

The semanticist begins with people and with the processes that go on in their minds and bodies. Once the people are semantically emancipated, once they are trained in the use of a multiple-valued language, they will be skeptical not only of abstractions, but also of propagandistic lures, political oratory of the flamboyant, spellbinding variety.

Does it not follow that each person under these circumstances will seek for a solution that is practicable, socially desirable, and beneficial? Institutions and laws are made by men. Human beings can shape and control their social destiny.

[1]Dewey, John: "Democracy and Education." New York. 1916. p. 169.

HOW A SCHOOL DETERMINED PUPIL NEEDS[1]

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THE CHIEF criterion used to build the curriculum in progressive schools seems to be that of determining the needs of the students. The theory is generally accepted, but the question arises—just how can these needs be determined? Much has been written on this subject, but little of specific value can be found because of two main reasons: the process of determining pupil needs is a very difficult one; needs of students vary according to the local situation.

This article will describe a process carried on by a group of teachers of Skinner Junior High School in an attempt to discover the real needs of our boys and girls, particularly those in the five core classes with which we have been working for almost two years.

We began, first, by listing the sources of material on pupil needs: teachers, pupils, parents, other citizens of the community, and the literature on the subject. The task of collecting material from these various sources was divided up among a small committee of our faculty. Throughout we have had the able assistance of supervisors, principal, and staff members of the Eight-Year Study. No attempt was made, in this procedure, to separate personal and social needs.

It was decided that a questionnaire would be drawn up to include as much material as possible from each of the above five sources. First of all, various teachers listed needs and problems of youth, as they saw them from observation and experience. Then, group conferences were held with a few classes, who were asked to list what they thought they needed. Their responses dealt mainly with personal-social interests. Some of the items the students listed were: how to overcome shyness before adults; how to overcome shyness before groups; how to introduce people; how to say the right thing at the right time; how to talk to a boy in the correct way; how to be hostess at a party for boys and girls; how to cook a meal; how to make friends; how to dress for different occasions; and how to hold your temper.

To secure materials from the third and fourth sources, parents and other citizens of the community, an effort was made to get the ideas of persons who were socially-minded and alert to the problems of youth. Various representative parents and such persons as ministers, businessmen, a Boy Scout executive, and the director of the local community center were interviewed, and their ideas were incorporated in the questionnaire.

The fifth source, the literature, was least fruitful, because the statements of the needs of youth, as given, were much too abstract. However, there is some value in consulting, as we did, such sources.

The material was collected and revised by a few teachers after consultation with Mr. Guy Fox, Assistant Director of Research in the Denver Public Schools. The result was a "Questionnaire on Pupil Needs," stated in the form of 106 problems. The fifty members of the faculty were asked to

[1]This article represents one of the projects stimulated by the Eight-Year Study. The Commission in charge of this study will present a final report within the next two years.

fill it out. It was also given to the 178 students of our five experimental classes. The teachers of these classes took great pains to explain the questionnaire thoroughly, to encourage a serious attitude on the part of the students in filling it out, and to urge the pupils to ask questions. The response of the students was gratifying; a thoughtful attitude was evident; many questions were asked; and some discussion followed.

The problem which received the strongest vote, from both students and faculty, was: "How can I keep myself in the best of health?" The one which received the smallest vote from the faculty was: "How can I learn salesmanship?" The problem which was in similar place, in the opinion of the students, was: "Should we be paid for work around the house?"

The various questions were keyed to units or areas. The units, with a typical pupil problem in each, follow:

Orientation to the school: What type of marking system does our school have?

Safety: How can I avoid accidents while riding a bicycle?

Living in the home: What are my responsibilities in the home?

Recreation: How can I develop hobbies?

Personal health: How can I learn to stand and walk correctly?

Vocations: How can I prepare for and get a satisfactory job?

Face-to-face relationships: How can I make and keep friends?

Personality development: How can I develop self-confidence?

Community life: What difference does it make to me how our city government is run?

American citizenship: In what ways is being an American citizen different from being a citizen of a European country?

Consumer economics: How can I best use my allowance?

Communication of thought and feeling: How can I learn to speak well in public?

Work habits: How can I learn to follow directions and take responsibility?

Reading and language: How can I learn to spell correctly?

Science and mathematics: How can I learn to use arithmetic correctly?

The responses of students and teachers were compiled with reference to the above units, weighted in a few cases where the number of questions was uneven, and then translated into percentages. For students, the areas ranked in the following order: personality development, face-to-face relationships, vocations, personal health, orientation to the school, consumer economics, American citizenship, living in the home, safety, community life, and recreation. For the teachers the order was not very much different: personality development and face-to-face relationships, safety, personal health, vocations, recreation, living in the home, American citizenship, consumer economics, community life, and orientation to the school.

Thus, personality development, face-to-face relationships, personal health, and vocations led the list. All the skills and knowledges were ranked rather high: for students, the order was reading and language work habits, communication of thought and feeling, science and mathematics; for teachers, the order was work habits, reading and language, science and mathematics, and communication of thought and feeling. The surprise, to me, was the relatively low status given by teachers to social needs, like citizenship and community life.

It was next planned to issue this questionnaire to certain parent groups. However, we felt that it was too long and might be confusing. Therefore, we listed only the above units, instead of the specific questions. First, eighty members of our Fathers' Council filled out the questionnaire (reworded slightly) at a meeting. The results of this

were much the same as for students and teachers, except that some areas like American citizenship and home and family life were considered much more important.

Then a questionnaire was given to the parents of the children in our five experimental classes. One hundred twenty-two parents, of whom only a few had attended the Fathers' Council meeting mentioned above, responded. The questionnaire given to this second group was amplified, at the suggestion of some parents and teachers to include a few more areas of living and additional knowledges, more of the course of study work, as it were. The results were translated into percentages, also. Then, an average was compiled of the responses of the four groups—teachers, pupils, members of the Fathers' Council, and parents of the five experimental classes: personality development; getting along with other people; personal health; American citizenship; safety in home, school, and community; home and family life; vocational life; recreation—use of leisure time; living in the community; adjustment to the school; conservation of natural resources;[2] problems of the consumer; transportation;[2] and communication.[2]

Skills and knowledges ranked as follows: grammar;[2] work habits; reading; speaking effectively; writing effectively; American government;[2] mathematics; American history;[2] current events;[2] English literature;[2] music appreciation;[2] American literature;[2] geography;[2] art appreciation;[2] and history of ancient times and of the Middle Ages.[2]

Very soon after this compilation was finished plans for a reorganization of the Denver junior high school program were announced. Beginning in September, 1940, the curriculum was drastically revised. Among the changes planned were the introduction of a daily class for all students called *Guidance*. The content, however, was the same as is usually understood to belong to a Core or General Education class. A group of our teachers, who form a planning committee, have begun to plan a tentative sequence for this Guidance class, based on the results of the work described in this article. Because of the reorganization that is in effect next year, we are using only the areas of living for the Guidance class. We took those that ranked in the first ten in the compiled list and arranged them in a grade placement, according to our best judgment, as follows: seventh grade: adjustment to the school, safety, recreation; eighth grade: getting along with people, personal health; ninth grade: home and family life, living in the community, American citizenship, vocational life.

The step on which we are now working is the planning of units in these various areas. We do not feel that this procedure is at all complete. But it is not armchair theorizing; it is the work of classroom teachers, who are carrying on a full program of classes and extracurricular activities, and who still have managed to do some specific work in determining pupil needs.

[2]These items were marked by the parents of the five experimental classes and no other groups.

CHILDREN COOPERATE IN SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

By K. D. WANN
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KILPATRICK SAYS: "If we propose to develop and respect each individual and to keep public decisions in the hands of all the people, then we must encourage everybody to think. From this angle, democracy wishes every institution—each family, shop, factory, school system, university, and government, all—to be so run that each member or worker or citizen, from youngest and lowest to oldest and highest, is encouraged to suggest improvements with the full assurance that his suggestions will be considered and used on their merits. Democracy wishes such encouragement to thought and suggestion from all, partly because without it the individual is not truly respected, partly because we never know in advance who will make the best suggestions and partly because this plan has in it the surest basis of public education and intelligent cooperation without which democracy cannot hope to succeed."

Taking our cue from the above challenge, we began to study the part our elementary school should play in teaching cooperation and thinking which is so important to democracy. On several occasions children from different grade groups suggested to the principal improvements which should be made in the school. In order to allow all groups to participate in school improvement and in order that there would be no overlapping of efforts, we decided to organize a group which we would call the Elementary Council.

At the first meeting of the Council the children outlined a project in beautifying school grounds including: reseeding the lawn which had been badly washed and cut up by trucks; removing all debris from the campus; planting flowers in the court; painting the walls of the toilets; getting some defective plumbing repaired; replacing shrubbery which had died; planting shrubbery around the new wing; building needed concrete walks; adding gravel to the driveway; and placing posts along driveway to protect lawn.

Having outlined the needed improvements, the children were ready to begin specific plans. Needing expert advice, the children called in the vocational agriculture teacher from the high school. Each phase of the proposed improvements was discussed carefully with him. He suggested that the children prepare a paced survey of the campus showing the improvements in order that we would get an idea of the appearance of the grounds when finished.

The children prepared a map of the grounds to scale. Existing conditions were shown in blue and improvements in red. When the map was completed, it was submitted to the assistant county agent in order that he might suggest changes. As a result of a conference with him, the Council members changed the walks in the court. The map was now complete; two experts had passed on it. The children were confident that it would stand up under the severest criticism. They were ready to present it to the county superintendent of education for his approval and any help he could give in getting materials. Consequently, a letter was written to the super-

intendent, asking him for an interview. A committee was selected to present the plans during the interview.

When the children returned from the superintendent's office, they presented their plans to each grade group and allowed them to select the part of the project that they wanted their group to work on. The work was finally divided in this way: Grade I: help plant flowers and keep the school grounds clean; Grade II: prepare flower beds in the court of the building; Grade III: remove all rubbish from school grounds and help with flower beds in the court; Grade IV: enrich, plow, and reseed the lawn and help paint the walls of the toilets; Grade V: take charge of the shrubbery planting and help paint; Grade VI: make concrete walks and new floors in the toilets.

During the process of dividing the work, questions arose in the groups as to where they could get reading material to help them do their work. The Council consulted the vocational teacher and he suggested that the secretary write to Alabama Polytechnic Institute for pamphlets. He also volunteered to work with any group who needed him. The children wrote and secured many pamphlets that were very helpful.

Even though the work was divided among the groups, there was much sharing and cooperating between groups. For instance, the fourth grade was working on the lawn, but was unable to get barnyard manure or a mule and plow. They carried their problem to the Council, the members of which carried the problem back to their respective groups. Within a day or two the lawn was covered with manure which had been given by the parents of children in the first, fifth, and sixth grades. During the next few days, the lawn was being broken by a team of mules and a plow lent by the parent of a first grade child.

The third grade received from a first grade child the loan of a wagon in which to remove rubbish. Children in all grades contributed shrubbery and flower seeds to groups working on those projects. Ideas and factual materials were continually shared between grades. Throughout the work, the Council acted as a clearinghouse for problems. They lent their help to any group that needed them.

In the following paragraphs, I shall endeavor to show, in a very general way, how each group handled its project. In order to show how the projects, in all groups, provided for richness of experience, I shall discuss the work of the sixth grade in detail.

The first grade took, for its part, the planting of flowers and the cleaning of the school grounds. Jimmie K. brought his wagon to school one day and helped the third grade remove all rubbish from the grounds. The work led into many discussions as to the proper way to care for the grass, shrubs, and flowers.

The second grade chose to help beautify the court between the two wings of our building. They were interested in planting flowers because they had small flower plants growing in the room which they knew would have to be transplanted. They had several books about flowers in connection with their plants. The children found as much information as possible, and with the teacher the material was read. Charts of experiences and observations were made.

The beds were measured and staked off. The ground was prepared and the seeds and plants set out. The children developed interest in gardens at home. They painted a frieze and many individual pictures. They wrote stories about the progress of their work. Letters were written ordering seed which were not obtainable from home.

The third grade agreed to clean off the school ground and to make flower beds. A committee was immediately selected to clean up the rubbish. After this was done, it was agreed that the boys would measure and stake off the beds for the flowers while the girls investigated the kind of flowers to plant.

With this done the children discussed the preparation of soil. *Let's Make a Garden* and other books and pamphlets on gardening were read. The children found that the soil should be spaded and turned over at least twice to aerate it. Then it should be pulverized to loosen it and give the seeds a chance to sprout and the young plants room to form roots. Seeds were planted in the room to observe the sprouting of seeds and growing of the young plants.

The girls decided on the following flowers: zinnias and calendulas were to be planted in the back of the beds on account of their height; next marigolds and petunias were to be planted, and bordering the beds would be nasturtiums. A frieze was painted showing the flowers in bloom.

The fourth grade chose to reseed the lawn. They called in the vocational agriculture teacher who suggested that they fertilize the lawn before planting it. He also told them how to prepare the soil by means of a plow and a disk harrow. A bulletin on lawns was secured and read. Soon the children had the soil ready for the seed. The bulletin told them how many pounds of seed to buy per square yard so they set to work to determine the amount that they needed. The lawn space was measured, the seed purchased, and the lawn planted after other groups had helped obtain materials.

The fifth grade chose to plant the shrubbery. The map of the school grounds was studied carefully in order to determine places where shrubbery was needed and what type to use. The vocational agriculture teacher at the high school near by offered the shrubbery needed by the group. Pamphlets were secured from the Alabama Extension Service, and the group was ready to go to work.

The sixth grade chose the making of sidewalks as their part in the improvement plans. There were two bulletins on file in the school library concerning the making of sidewalks. These were studied by several members of the class so that they would understand the procedure for making walks. Others who were interested read from other materials. The information gathered was shared with the entire group. After a discussion in which many questions were asked, the group wrote on the blackboard a summary of the procedure outlined in the bulletins.

While writing the story someone suggested this sentence: "Every six feet place a two by four to provide for expansion and contraction joints." This raised such questions as: what do the words, expansion and contraction, mean and what causes expansion and contraction? The answer to what

causes expansion and contraction was not so easily secured. One child said that he had found something in a science book about expansion. This gave us a cue and we began to search the science books for the answer. It was soon found that heat causes expansion and cold contraction. In the meantime, the summary had been finished and printed on a large wall chart for ready reference.

Now the children were ready to investigate the various sources of materials for the walks. One child offered all the sand we needed if we could secure a truck to haul it in. It was decided to interview the county superintendent of education relative to getting a truck. A letter was written by a group asking for a conference with him. The letter was later copied on the board so that the entire group might offer suggestions and make corrections. In a few days the group received a letter granting an interview. Five representatives were chosen to visit the superintendent. They returned triumphant because a truck had been secured for hauling sand and slag and a promise of help in securing the cement had been given. It only remained to determine the exact amount needed.

The group was not at all sure how they could determine the amount needed so they called in one of the patrons who had worked in concrete. He estimated the number of sacks, but this did not satisfy the group because they wanted something more definite. One child in his reading found that it takes six and one-fourth sacks of cement for every cubic yard of concrete. He realized that if he knew how many cubic yards of concrete the group would have to pour he could tell how many sacks we would need. No one knew how to determine the cubic yards so the entire group sat down together to learn. In this discussion the concept of cubic measure had to be developed. Various objects were used and a number of drawings made. After most of the group had gained an understanding of what we would have to do, we set to work on the problem.

The pupils saw that it would be necessary to measure length, width, and depth of the walk. By means of multiplying and reducing, we found that twelve and one-half yards of concrete would have to be poured, requiring seventy-eight and one-eighth sacks of cement.

Another letter was written asking for seventy-nine sacks of cement. The group set to work now to prepare the trenches and actually to build the walks. The work built within the children a greater spirit of cooperation, joy, and humor. The plans for the entire school were not finished, but they will be carried on by the groups next year.

In evaluating the work the staff feels that the following results were attained within the children: greater pride in care of the school plant; better spirit of cooperation between grades; increased joy in the beautiful; growth in personality through feeling a part of a successful undertaking; and increased efficiency in reading.

CURRICULUM IMPLICATIONS OF MOTION PICTURES

By CHARLES F. HOBAN, JR.
American Council on Education

GROWING UP in the United States is a movie industry, more important socially, but less publicized and less expensive than the one in Hollywood. Its product is the sixteen-millimeter nontheatrical motion picture — the movie of government, industry, and the school. This year schools are spending over a quarter of a million dollars in purchasing sixteen-millimeter films for classroom use and another two and a quarter million dollars acquiring equipment for projecting these films in the classroom. This two and one-half million dollars compares favorably with the cost of a single, supercolossal, star-studded Hollywood feature, and with the national debt for a single widely-adopted school textbook. But the social significance of the two million or so dollars spent for school movies during the past years is potentially far greater than a corresponding million spent to ogle at Robert Taylor or Hedy Lamarr, or to present textbooks to boys and girls who cannot read.[1]

Notice that this significance is only "potentially greater." Actually, it may be greater or less. For all we know, Robert Taylor and Hedy Lamarr in their celluloid extension may be exerting a more important social influence than the school, and for all we know, boys and girls may have learned to read school textbooks if school textbooks have been made readable, and boys and girls have been taught to read them.

[1]It is not meant to imply that learning to read is not the most important single skill schools should develop, or that any primary reading series is not of greatest potential significance.

What we do know is that the vast majority of educators have not begun to incorporate motion pictures into their curriculum activities. This state of affairs is not unexpected. Education and educators are fundamentally among the most conservative elements in our social structure. Both are subject to exhausting verbiage about dynamics, but neither manifests marked dynamic characteristics. The struggle to obtain free textbooks in public schools is too recent—and in some states still unsolved—to permit an upset of the educational status quo by serious consideration of a new and non-verbal medium of experience. And the social sanction of equal education for all is still too radical for staid middle class society to admit the stark necessity of adjusting education to the new school population. And the motion picture is still too tainted with the odor of pre-Hays office Hollywood Art to be socially acceptable in the schools. As one righteous educationist remarked after seeing a sixteen-millimeter film on problems of the working girl: "If you're going to bring that stuff into the school you might as well move the school right out into the gutter."

We also know that where films have been introduced into the curriculum, they are not always used wisely and well. Errors have crept into our thinking about the functions of motion pictures in education. Like it or not, most formal education still consists of what the pupil learns from the textbooks, and any experience that aspires to educational status must ei-

ther be cast in the mold of the textbook or constitute an appropriate appendage. Applied to college education, the word "lecture" is substituted for "textbook." Generally excepted are the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the primary grades.

Prevalent Errors

One of the most prevalent errors is to regard the motion picture as a supplement instead of as a complement to other educational materials and procedures. Even among those institutions and school systems justly famous for their curriculum development, teachers, particularly on the senior high and college level, are painfully careful to point out that classroom movies are used as supplementary materials—that the elements supplemented were the lecture or the reading assignments, and, rarely, laboratory experiences and field trips.

The distinction between the supplementary and complementary use of educational materials is an extremely important one, for it involves fundamental notions of the nature and relationship of various kinds of experience. Used supplementarily, motion pictures are intended to supply more of the same kind of experience. Used complementarily, they are intended to supply a different kind of experience necessary to complete a whole. The one use is primarily illustrative, the other developmental. The one further illustrates a principle already developed, the other serves as a basis for the development of a principle. In terms of growth, the one is additive (hypertrophic) and the other is differential (hyperplastic). The kind of education which obtains from supplementary use of motion pictures is fundamentally different from the kind which obtains from complementary use. Until this distinction is recognized and acted upon, motion pictures will continue to be largely an appendage to instead of an integral part of the curriculum.

A second common curriculum error lies in regarding the motion picture primarily as an interest-getting and motivational device almost to the exclusion of the medium as a basis for conceptual development. This error derives out of the heretical emphasis on the "on-going" nature of the educational process, for this "on-going" doctrine has assumed the character of an unremitting series of leaps. Unfortunately, modern stress is not so much on where we are and where we are going as on activity *per se*.

By its dynamic nature, the motion picture is particularly valuable in the stimulation of activity, but the activity stimulated should not always involve new direction. One of the most important educational activities, as Dewey points out, is "keeping track of ideas, activities, and observed consequences. Keeping track is a matter of reflective review and summarizing, in which there are both discrimination and record of the significant features of a developing experience. To reflect is to look back over what has been done so as to extract the net meanings which are the capital stock for intelligent dealing with further experience. It is the heart of intellectual organization and of the disciplined mind."[2]

When, therefore, motion pictures are used exclusively to stimulate interest and to motivate new activity, one of the most significant educational

[2]John Dewey: "Education and Experience." Quoted from John Dewey's Philosophy. (The Modern Library.) p. 680.

essentials of the medium is lost to the curriculum. For, of all things, motion pictures serve as a medium for reflective thinking and conceptual development; i.e., for the operation of Dewey's principle of *continuity* as well as his principle of *interaction*. In other words, motion pictures have a logical as well as a methodological function in education.

A third error in the curriculum use of motion pictures—and a distinction is made between "curriculum" and "school" use—is in the exclusive separation of objectives which the films may serve intrinsically or extrinsically. This exclusive separation is characteristic both of schools organized largely in the subject-matter tradition, and those organized in more dynamic terms. In the one case, however, motion pictures are used almost exclusively to show what is shown in the film, while in the other they are used to show what must be inferred from the films. The one use is largely on the intellectual plane of simple apprehension, the other on the plane of inference without basic consideration of the nature and the process of inference.

This type of error may be illustrated by various uses which may be made of *Heart and Circulation*, a widely used science film. Essentially, this film explains and illustrates the structure and action of the heart and the circulatory system. In the typical traditional high school or junior college, the film would be used to do exactly that, nothing more or nothing less, and once students demonstrated that they, too, could explain and illustrate the structure and action of the heart and the circulatory system, the film would have served its curriculum purpose. In the typical "new" curriculum the film would be used to develop the concept that bodily organs are interdependent and are affected in their functioning by daily bodily activities, and to develop an awareness of the need of restraint in physical exercise for the sake of personal health.

In the film, the increased heart rate and distribution of blood under strenuous athletic exercise are illustrated in picture and pointed out in commentary, as are the relation of blood pressure to quantity of blood, arterial constriction, and stimulation of the vagus nerve. From these elements of the film, particularly with the help of the commentator, it is possible to infer that there is a relationship between pulse rate and exercise, and between blood pressure and certain other physical conditions. In other words, the concepts are given specific and determinate subjects. It is quite a psychological step, however, to infer that these relationships are common to all bodily organs and under all environmental conditions. This inference must be developed through further inquiry into many different bodily organs and their interrelated functions. At best, such inferences from the experience provided in the film must be wholly tentative, subject to verification. Furthermore, it is an even greater step from the film experience to the inference that restraint is necessary in physical exercise for the sake of personal health, for there is relatively little in the film which deals with the endurance of the heart over a long period of time under various conditions of physical exercise.

The principles governing this statement are provided in specific deter-

minates in the film, but it is necessary to give them a common and almost universal subject in order to apply them to situations as far removed from the film as running up three flights of stairs at top speed several times a day.

Yet, these broad understandings and awarenesses are exactly the kinds of educational objectives the film should be used to develop. Unless there is some relationship between the heart and circulation and living activities of the individual, and unless the individual is enabled to understand these relationships and to be inclined to act appropriately, there is little excuse for studying the subject in the first place, much less in using a film in this study.

The point is that in the one use of the film there is apprehension without inference, and in the other there is too great a gap between simple apprehension and higher inference. There is no ascent in the film commentary or in the arrangement of pictorial content to the inferences stated as objectives served by the film. This ascent must be made through a series of experiences drawn from data in the film and from other sources. It is in this sense that we must view the motion picture as a complementary medium of experience, rounding out meaning and significance, but not supplying all its elements. In the traditional curriculum, not enough is expected from the film; in the newer curriculum, too much is expected.

Implications for Curriculum Development

It is possible to generalize these criticisms to all curriculum materials and procedures, and in this generalization to lose sight of the argument; i.e., the importance of *motion pictures* in the modern curriculum. While the errors in curriculum utilization of motion pictures are the same kind of errors that attend curriculum materials and procedures in general, they differ in degree for two simple reasons. First, the nature of the motion picture as a medium of experience is not well understood by educators; and, second, the power of motion pictures makes errors in their educational use particularly expensive.

This whole situation presents at least two implications for curriculum leaders. The first is that, if they are to be leaders, they must study the essential nature and the functions of motion pictures in the curriculum; for unless they understand the kinds of experience the motion picture provides and accept it as an integral part of the curriculum, its educational use will continue to be ineffective and possibly harmful. Second, unless teachers are taught to discriminate these same functions, both in their pre-service and in-service training, it is likely they will be unable to utilize motion pictures with full educational effectiveness in the classroom, and that the potential values of the motion picture will be lost to education.

SHORT ARTICLES

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN QUINCY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By Bertrand L. Smith
Director of Curriculum, Quincy, Illinois Public Schools

THE CENTRAL CONSIDERATION in school administration is the improvement of learning through improvement of instruction. The central emphasis in improvement of instruction should be placed upon growth of the whole school personnel through participation in purposeful activity. During the past two years every member of the faculty of the Quincy Public Schools has, in one way or another, participated in the study of curriculum problems and issues.

A yearbook which was the result of cooperative effort was recently issued, the sections of which were the contributions of the Curriculum Cabinet in the Quincy Public Schools, which is composed of about thirty-five members who serve as a planning body. The cabinet includes the chairmen of curriculum committees from all divisions of the school system, all school principals, supervisors, the members of the Steering Committee, the curriculum director, and the superintendent of schools.

In 1938-1939, following the organization of the curriculum development program, the committees in each area began to study and work upon educational problems. Important issues in education were discussed in the various committee meetings.

The work in the committees in each area varied to some extent, but, in general, two phases of curriculum development received attention: immediate curriculum needs and plans for a long-time program of curriculum development.

At the beginning of the 1939-1940 school year, a director of curriculum was placed in charge of the curriculum development program and the committees resumed their work. The work of curriculum development for the school year 1939-1940 was divided into two parts.

During the first part of the year, the curriculum study committees discussed and formulated their positions on certain major issues in education. The results were compiled for use by the curriculum cabinet as a guide in planning the next steps in curriculum development.

The second part of 1939-1940 was devoted to work within the curriculum cabinet. Committee reports covered the following topics: philosophy, guiding principles, and objectives; a plan for unified instruction; planning units in the curriculum; community resources and the curriculum; and working plan for 1940-1941.

Thus far, the faculty has determined its position on certain major educational issues; stated its guiding principles and objectives; outlined a scope and sequence framework within which a unified instructional program for the total school system may be developed; formulated suggestions for planning and teaching units; and made a beginning in the study of community resources in the curriculum. It is now the proper time to begin the development of curriculum guides as aids to classroom planning and instruction.

Concentrated curriculum development cannot be carried on in all areas at one time. For that reason it will be necessary to concentrate upon the work in one area as production is started. The production of curriculum guides usually begins in one of the areas designated as the core of the curriculum. In our program social studies, language arts, and science and related studies form the core. Plans for the year 1940-1941 are to start concentrated work in the social studies area. At the same time, preliminary work will be done in the other areas which will follow the work in social studies as it develops.

THE OREGON READING SURVEY

By Frank W. Parr
Oregon State College
Corvallis, Oregon

DURING THE past year, reading tests were given to more than four thousand pupils in Oregon public schools. The survey was conceived and sponsored by the Oregon Division of the Coordinated Studies in Education, with the cooperation of the State Department of Education. The survey included pupils in grades four through twelve and was participated in by every county in the state. Plans for the survey were made in the spring of 1939 after the Oregon Supervisory Committee had made a careful study of available tests. The test selected for the survey was the "Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities," by Dvorak and Van Wagenen. The tests were ordered through the Coordinated Studies in Education and were machine-scored at the Seattle headquarters.

The Oregon Reading Survey was expected to accomplish three things: (1) to determine the level of reading achievement of pupils in grades four to twelve; (2) to suggest ways and means of improving reading instruction in Oregon elementary schools; and (3) to encourage and direct Oregon schools in organizing programs of diagnostic and remedial instruction. The first purpose of the survey has already been achieved and norms are now being prepared. To accomplish the other two purposes, a new committee was appointed and will be known henceforth as the Oregon Remedial Reading Committee. Members of this committee include the following persons: Gaile H. Good, Principal, Edison and Condon Schools, Eugene, Chairman; Elizabeth B. Montgomery, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Oregon; Frank W. Parr, Director of Supervised Teaching, Oregon State College; Lewis C. Martin, Director of Special Education and Psychologist, University of Oregon Extension Division; Jack W. Kennedy, Rural School Supervisor, Marion County; Walter E. Snyder, Curriculum Coordinator, Salem City Schools; Emma Henkle, Supervisor of Intermediate Education, Oregon College of Education; and V. D. Bain, Director of Curriculum and Elementary Education, State Department of Education.

As soon as the reading survey was completed, this new committee prepared a Remedial Teaching Bulletin, which was published by the Northwest Division of Coordinated Studies in Education. A copy of this bulletin has been sent gratis to each school that participated in the survey. The bulletin includes suggestions on the following phases of reading: a description of a satisfactory reading program;

a discussion of some of the most common reading difficulties; an analysis of the Dvorak and Wagenen reading test; a consideration of certain factors that influence the rate of comprehension; suggested practice exercises for each grade level; a list of commercial remedial reading materials; a bibliography of remedial reading books for teachers; and a bibliography of books for retarded readers, organized on the basis of vocabulary and interest level.

It is anticipated that the survey and follow-up will continue for at least a five-year period and that during this time, members of the afore-mentioned committee will be available for consultant service to the schools of the state.

Members of the Oregon Remedial Reading Committee are eager to exchange ideas with those in other states who may be interested in this type of project.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL ARTS

By M. M. Proffitt
Specialist in Industrial Arts Education
United States Office of Education

THE NATIONAL Committee appointed last year by the United States Commissioner of Education to study and report on the contribution that industrial arts can make to a program for the education of slow-learning pupils, held its second meeting at the Office of Education in Washington, September 23, 24, and 25. Specifically the committee is studying the part industrial arts can play in the solution of the curriculum problem created by pupils of junior-senior high school age who are regarded as normal, in contradistinction to those classified as *sub*-normal in accordance with generally accepted standards, yet whose records of achievement indicate that neither a college preparatory course nor an occupational course requiring the acquisition of a considerable amount of technical information is feasible for them.

For the purpose of this study the committee is examining causes and conditions, out of which these slow-learning pupils arise, social and economic factors affecting high school enrollments, social attitudes toward secondary education, factors affecting high school curriculum offerings, differences among pupils with respect to interest in various media used for instruction, and suitability of instructional methods. The committee is also making an effort to determine effective procedures for identifying these slow-learning pupils to whose education industrial arts may make an important contribution.

The characteristics of these pupils constitute a conditioning factor in the selection of proper educational experiences for their adjustment to society. The committee, therefore, is trying to find out something specific about their achievement abilities, their interests, and their attitudes toward school and society. For this purpose the committee is pooling the comprehensive experiences of its members, is using the wide contacts its members have with school administrators to secure from schools relevant information, and is making use of information already available on various phases of the total problem.

From its work up to the present time the committee has arrived at certain basic assumptions that will serve as guiding principles in the preparation of its report. These include:

1. A proper and adequate program for the education of these pupils will be a general education program, serving general education objectives, rather than a program of a special field in education, serving a special objective, such as vocational employment.

This does not preclude, however, the assumption that a certain offering in such a program may contribute to the development of a special objective for some pupils. For example, an offering in industrial arts may contribute to the development of a marketable employment value for some pupils.

2. A proper and adequate program for these pupils cannot be built out of offerings in any one curriculum area or solely about a single area.

The language arts, the social sciences, and other phases of the general education curriculum can individually be made to contribute in a unique way to the total program.

3. Because industrial arts uses concrete media—the common materials and tools employed in the creation of industrial products and services—this curriculum area has comparatively large potential values for the adjustment of these pupils to our social order.

It cannot be implied from this assumption that industrial arts work is in anywise limited in its applications to pupils of low achievement ability or that it is especially for slow-learning pupils. Industrial arts can make an essential and important contribution to the educational program of pupils of all levels of ability.

4. The educational experiences included in industrial arts work for these pupils will be selected with reference to certain criteria, such as pupil ability, pupil interest, ordinary life activities, employment values, etc., as these are *interpreted in terms of these particular pupils.*

5. Educational experiences provided through the industrial arts area for these pupils will include opportunities for the acquisition of information—through reading and study, class discussions, and observation—that is necessary for an understanding of the organization of industry, industrial workers, working conditions, and the part these play in our social order.

Industrial arts, dealing as it does with the materials and processes of industry and having as an instructor a teacher with a background of experiences in industry, constitutes the feasible and advisable curriculum area for instruction directly concerned with industrial life.

6. Industrial arts activities for these pupils will be organized not so much on the basis of special programs as on the basis of variations in the regular programs.

7. Instructional procedures in industrial arts for these pupils will vary from those employed for the instruction of "regular" pupils, both as to the feasibility of a given procedure and the emphasis placed upon a given procedure.

Demonstration and graphic presentation will loom large as instructional practices.

8. Teachers will need special qualifications relative to interest in these pupils, experience necessary to meet variations from the regular industrial arts activities, and abilities effective for instruction.

CURRICULUM RESEARCH

GANS, ROMA—*A Study of Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades.* Contributions to Education Number 811. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1940. 135 p. $1.85.

In recent years teachers have become increasingly conscious of the limitations of standard tests. This realization is particularly marked in the area of reading wherein writers have stressed the failure of tests to measure various aspects of meaningful reading; for example, the ability to make pertinent and useful discriminations and to organize, relate, and apply information in problem solving. Moreover, students of semantics, workers in the field of general education, and others have insisted that the fundamental ability to read critically, an asset of incalculable value to citizens in a democracy, is untested in the usual standardized examinations.

Doctor Gans has undertaken to provide information relative to this problem, seeking to ascertain "the ability of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children to read critically from a variety of content in order to find information relevant to a problem" and to discover the relationship of this ability to test results.

An ingenious test was constructed to measure "selection-rejection" ability which preliminary studies demonstrated to be an important phase of reference-reading. This test included ten units, each of which contained (a) a description of a classroom situation in which a problem arises; (b) six to ten paragraphs described by reading specialists as directly relevant, remotely relevant, fanciful, encyclopedic, and sheerly irrelevant; (c) answers *Helps* and *Does not help* printed after each paragraph; (d) three checks on the pupils' understanding of the problem; and (e) five or six sentences after each unit to be marked B if pupils believe the statement, T if it contains some item read, and H if it is relevant to the problem.

Four hundred seventeen pupils in grades four, five, and six were given this test and several reliable standard tests; coefficients of correlations were calculated between the two basic abilities ("test-reading" and "reference reading") as well as between many elements within this test structure.

It was found that ". . . the coefficients of correlation of all the five types indicate that the abilities are not closely enough related to those in the reading criterion to be measured by the tests designed for discovering the reading criterion abilities . . ."

Doctor Gans points to the significance of these findings and the demonstrated need for examining fundamental reading abilities which are not included in standard tests. For it seems that children may make high scores on tests and still be unable to read critically and discriminatingly. "Further investigation in this area is needed for all age groups, because gullibility in reading functioning cojointly with high ability in reading comprehension is an incongruity which should not be tolerated."

This study constitutes an important contribution in the field of reading. It is the hope of the reviewer that this

monograph will be widely read, and that the ingenious tests will be generally used and developed.

PAUL WITTY
Northwestern University

McCOY, RAYMOND F.—*A Decade of Modern Novels as Material for Socialized Curriculum.* University of Cincinnati, Teachers College, 1939. Unpublished doctor's dissertation.

Both social studies teachers and teachers of English are becoming aware of the value of fiction in the development of desirable attitudes and ideals in high school pupils and in the clarification of the social, political, and economic problems which they encounter in their reading and in their daily experiences. This study by Raymond F. McCoy supplies valuable materials for such teachers from the realm of contemporary literature.

Mr. McCoy undertook to identify the major problems of social studies classes and to select from the modern novels published from 1928 to 1937, inclusive, all those that deal competently with these problems. He has presented a treatment of each of fifty novels so chosen and has supplied a problem index and author-title indexes of an extensive list of novels dealing with various stages of contemporary social problems.

In formulating his list of problems, the author consulted such sources as the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, and textbooks like Gillette & Reinhardt's *Current Social Problems*, Queen & Mann's *Social Pathology*, Bosard's *Problems of Social Well-Being*, and Wood's *Community Problems*. The list included problems of population, modern industry, economic security, the family and the home, mixed relations, education, crime and delinquency, religion, economic reform, war, government, socialization of medicine, communication, recreation, and conservation.

The novels selected were, for the most part, set in the United States, were of American authorship and were set mainly at 1900. Each dealt seriously with one of the contemporary social problems listed. Novels objectionable because of super-realistic, sadistic, or sordid themes were eliminated. Each novel selected had been favorably reviewed in reputable sources. The novels selected for special treatment were those which had achieved some distinction as in the winning of the Pulitzer prize or listing in such catalogs as those of the American Library Association and the National Council of Teachers of English.

Most valuable in this report, in addition to the analysis of the fifty selected novels, is the classified list of contemporary novels which serves as a useful supplement to such a volume as Lenrow's *A Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction.*

It is to be hoped that numerous similar studies will be made for earlier periods in both English and American literature and in world literature in English translation, for the use of teachers of English, of the social studies and all core courses.

JOHN J. DEBOER
Chicago Teachers College

REVIEWS OF CURRENT BOOKS

WASHBURNE, CARLETON—*A Living Philosophy of Education.* New York: John Day Company, 1940. pp. xxi + 585. $4.00.

The first impression of the book, after its pleasing appearance, is its size; for it is a big book. One wonders a bit at the decision to present a book which costs so much of time to read as well as money to buy. Still it is a good book, and worth both costs.

The title seen in advance may mislead some; but actual acquaintance explains the choice. It is not a book *about* the philosophy of education so much as an account of living a certain philosophy. The book uses, and so implicitly presents, the general progressive outlook as this is now seen and felt by Mr. Washburne. In a word, the book is a clear and forthright account of how Mr. Washburne thinks a school should be run, based largely on his own experience especially at Winnetka. However, at certain points the author presents definite arguments in defense of his position against certain criticism that he has encountered.

The whole book is written in excellent tone, and is sufficiently definite on procedures to be very useful. Many specific illustrations help to give both clearness and vivacity. Some of the distinctive treatments are: a very sane discussion of mental hygiene, a short but good discussion on sex education, a good word on the nursery school; an extended and well-illustrated discussion on "the child as an individual" including accounts of the various means of enriching life; a good discussion on "readiness" in reading, arithmetic, etc.; a good discussion on the upbuilding of the child as an effective member of society including good subordinate discussions on democracy and indoctrination; a good discussion on democratic school organization. Any teacher or administrator or parent or school board member who reads these discussions without profiting by them will either have already given a great deal of thought to them or be singularly impervious to good thoughts well expressed. American schools would be far better than they now are if more administrators had such good insight.

Those who know intimately the problem of American education will not need to be told that this reviewer and Mr. Washburne have not always seen eye to eye on curriculum making. A goodly proportion of Part III is taken up by Mr. Washburne with an excellent-tempered defense of his point of view. It is not always true that a man's defense is better than his attack. In this case it seems to be so. The attack on the emergent curriculum seems to this reviewer not equal either in fullness or in accuracy to the account given of the present Winnetka practice. And the latter seems to the reviewer to have moved appreciably away from the set dualism which formerly characterized the discussion, and presumably the practice, of the Winnetka system.

There still remain points which the reviewer would like to discuss if space permitted; but on the whole he is glad to give praise to the kind of teaching and administration herein portrayed. What is called progressive education shows many variants, but

fortunately it has never developed an orthodoxy. We are all working together to improve American education. And the book here under review will prove a real service in the common cause. It is a pleasure to commend it.

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK
Teachers College, Columbia University

KATONA, GEORGE — *Organizing and Memorizing.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. 318 p. $3.50.

There are thousands of references that might be included in a complete bibliography on "Learning," but the number of studies of learning that have advanced our knowledge about the nature of the process is not so large. Among recent studies this one deserves a high place. It is essentially a study of meaningful versus senseless learning, but to characterize it as such and no more would be misleading because it contains valuable experimental data upon transfer and excellent discussions of other important topics as memory traces, grouping in learning, and the prototypes of learning.

The beginning chapter attempts to define the author's field of research. There follows a chapter presenting experiments on two processes of learning, namely, memorizing and learning by understanding; an introduction to transfer; experiments concerning transfer; theory of transfer; grouping and learning; memory traces; retention of principles; the prototype of learning; and educational implications.

The experimental materials are card tricks and match tricks, some nonsense syllables, numbers, and in one experiment some text material. Many will say that for the most part the material is exactly what the author fears may be called "needless and artificial," and in spite of his objection on page 257 this objection can have weight.

Nevertheless, Katona's experimental work is well done. He shows a familiarity with his problem and related literature, and great intelligence and ingenuity in devising experiments to meet various questions that arise. His discussion of repetition, theory of transfer, gradual meaningful learning, and grouping in learning are important parts of his book. On the other hand, the chapter on memory traces is in our judgment least satisfactory.

Within the limitation of his data Katona's results favor decidedly meaningful learning, organization, and the importance of organized wholes over "individual items." The first few chapters are difficult not to say tedious. It will be unfortunate if this results in inadequate attention to the book, for in our judgment it deserves to rank among the first-rate contributions to our knowledge of learning.

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KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H. — *Group Education for a Democracy.* New York: Association Press, 1940. 215 pp.

When a man has lived significantly, and has written many good things in short form for a variety of periodicals and occasions, to put what he has written together in convenient form is a real service. This is emphatically true of the present volume. And when the materials thus brought together

are made to apply directly to the highly important development we are now calling "group education," the result has value even beyond that of a superior collection of writings.

It is particularly important that those now concerned with redirection of secondary education shall know what other than school agencies have been doing—and doing well—in this field of youth "education" in the best sense. At present few schools are actually carrying out the recommendations of such reports as those of the Commission on Reorganizing Secondary Education, for example. It is in the youth organizations of the country that the significant youth education is going on. This book of Doctor Kilpatrick's is appropriately designed, therefore, "to meet the needs of any who are interested in the education of 'teen-age' young people, whether in the home or in school, or in club work." The emphasis is on "the education that goes on among adolescents as they associate together."

It is doubtful whether one could find in any single place as good a statement as can be obtained from this volume of the Kilpatrick philosophy. Usually short, and to the point, these articles discuss—with a timeliness that the past two years have intensified—such topics as: What is democracy? Education and the social situation; Democracy and respect for personality; The teacher's place in the social life of today; How learning takes place; Education of adolescents in democratic living; My child as a person; Intelligence, individual differences, and democracy. A final section is modestly entitled: "Toward a philosophy of education." The fundamental social position taken is that of democracy — of "democracy understood as the effort to run society on a basis of ethics."

With respect to group work Doctor Kilpatrick pays tribute to the American Association for the Study of Group Work, under whose auspices this book is published. He points out, however, that the real success of group work will be achieved, "when, and to the degree that, effective working in groups has established itself as an essential part of any adequate education of youth, however and wherever conducted," rather than as a separate enterprise.

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INDEX TO VOLUME XI

AUTHORS

Andrus, Ruth—An Experience Curriculum for Young Children, 259-262.

Babson, Helen—The Place of the Core in the Curriculum, 317-320.

Barbour, Richmond—Getting Parental Opinion on the Curriculum, 310-312.

Biddick, Mildred—This Business of Writing for Teachers, 56-60.

Bimson, Oliver H.—Democracy in Administration, 321-323.

Bowen, Genevieve—The Curriculum in Rural Schools, 80-81.

Bowers, F. E.—Nebraska High School Program, 35-36.

Buck, J. L. Blair—Conference Reviews Virginia Curriculum Program, 79-80.

Cadle, Elizabeth F.—A Community Recreational Program for Youth, 23-26.

Campbell, Laurence R.—Journalism in High School, 72-75.

Caswell, H. L.—National Defense and the School Curriculum, 248-251.

Clapp, W. F.—The County Program for Improving Instruction, 184-186.

DeBoer, John J.—Subject Teachers Plan a Unified Curriculum, 271-273.

DePaul, Sister Mary—Curriculum Revision in a Diocesan System, 132-133.

Deyoe, George P.—Course Building for Teachers of Agriculture, 313-316.

Dutton, W. H.—A "Study Group" Type of Meeting, 274-275.

Featherstone, W. B.—Research in Curriculum Development, 105-109.

Fite, D. Harley—An Activity Program on the College Level, 273-274.

Gavian, Ruth Wood—Economic Education in the Elementary School, 11-14.

Gleitz, Florence M.—Curriculum Planning Through a Central Committee, 213-215.

Glicksberg, Charles I.—Semantics and the Educative Process, 354-357.

Grace, Cyril W.—A Teachers College Studies Its Environment, 256-258.

Granger, Oscar — Pennsylvania Studies the Non-College Pupil, 270-271.

Gregory, Francis — Vocational Training for National Defense, 327-328.

Grim, Paul R.—A Comprehensive Concept of Evaluation: A Reply, 32-35.

Gwynn, J. Minor—North Carolina Builds Curriculum Laboratory, 77-79.

Hanna, Lavone—The Operation of the Core Curriculum in Tulsa, 66-68.

Harnly, Paul W.—Comparison of Viewpoint of Pupils and Educators, 126-128.

Heaton, Kenneth L.—Summer Workshops for Teachers, 152-156.

Henderson, Ruth—Curriculum Revision Promotes Teacher Growth, 162-165.

Herzel, A. H.—How a School Determined Pupil Needs, 358-360.

Heyl, Helen Hay—The Elementary Curriculum Development Bureau in New York State, 128-130.

Hoban, Charles F., Jr.—Curriculum Implications of Motion Pictures, 365-368.

Holland, Kenneth—Work Camps for America, 224-227.

Howard, Ervin — Curriculum Building at Fordson, 36-37.

Huggett, Albert J.—What Is Wrong with Secondary School Subjects? 176-178.

Knox, Warren W.—Functions of the Curriculum Bureau, 76.

Kounin, J. S.—The Concept of Need and the Curriculum, 205-208.

Lamoreaux, Lillian A.—The Santa Barbara City Schools Workshop, 27-29.

Lay, Sallie—An Eighth Grade Studies Homes, 19-22.

Leonard, J. Paul—Current Conflicts in the Curriculum, 298-302.

Leonard, J. Paul—Meeting of the Executive Committee, 216-219.

Leonard, J. Paul—Report of the Executive Secretary, 181-184.

Long, Edward L.—Functional Science for Grade Eleven, 209-212.

Lyon, Ralph M.—Democratic Approach to Community Development, 252-255.

McCall, W. Morrison—State-Wide Improvement of Teacher Education, 15-18.

Mason, Edward F. — Junior Colleges Study Terminal Education, 231-232.

Mead, A. R.—General Concepts Basic to the Curriculum, 69-71.

Morgan, M. Evan—Cooperative Curriculum Study in Santa Monica, 37-38.

Muelder, Hermann R. — College Freshmen Study Their Environment, 170-172.

Odell, William R.—Two Approaches to High School Curriculum Revision, 115-118.

Palm, Reuben R.—The Role of the Laboratory School in Curriculum Development, 350-353.

Parr, Frank W.—The Oregon Reading Survey, 370-371.

Pierce, Paul R.—The Place of Study in General Education, 119-122.

Pistor, Frederick—Teaching Some Principles of Democracy, 7-10.

Proffitt, M. M.—National Committee on Industrial Arts, 371-372.

Purcell, Claude L.—An NYA Residential Project, 325-327.
Risinger, Hubert B. and Wieting, C. Maurice —An Experiment in Consumer Education, 323-325.
Sanchez, George I.—Latin America and the Curriculum, 303-305.
Smathers, Eugene—Building a Rural Community, 110-114.
Smith, B. O.—The Annual Meeting of the Society, 222-224.
Smith, Bert R.—The Study Center as In-Service Training of Teachers, 133-134.
Smith, Bertrand L.—Curriculum Development in Quincy Public Schools, 369-370.
Stone, Clark H.—Stimulating Teacher Growth, 346-349.
Thomas, John W.—Curriculum Improvement in Wakefield, Michigan, Schools, 173-175.
Troelstrup, Archie W.—Democracy in the Classroom, 219-222.
Van Brunt, Tom Byrd—Survey of State Curriculum Programs, 227-229.
Van Dyke, L. A.—Local Cooperation in Missouri Curriculum Program, 30-32.
Waite, Lloyd, L.—The Arts Program at Cranbrook School, 263-266.
Waller, Carl H.—Education for Vocations and College Life, 157-161.
Wann, K. D.—Children Cooperate in School Improvement, 361-364.
Weersing, Frederick J.—Curriculum Development as Teacher Growth, 166-169.
Whitelaw, John B.—School-Community Cooperation and the Teacher, 201-204.
Williams, Florence B. and Sifert, E. R.—Curriculum Study in Proviso Township High School, 81-83.
Wood, Hugh B.—The Internal Organization of the Curriculum, 61-65.
Wood, Hugh B.—Preparing a Schedule for Comprehensive Evaluation, 267-269.
Wrightstone, J. Wayne—A Practical Program of Evaluation, 306-309.
Wrinkle, William L.—A Basis for Curriculum Planning, 229-231.
Yeager, Fanchon—Children Study Construction of Building, 123-125.
Yeuell, Gladstone H.—Curriculum Changes in Alabama Secondary Schools, 179-181.

ARTICLES

Activity Program on the College Level, D. Harley Fite, 273-274.
Annual Meeting of the Society, B. O. Smith, 222-224.
Annual Meetings: 1940, 30.
Arts Program at Cranbrook School, Lloyd L. Waite, 263-266.
Basis for Curriculum Planning, William L. Wrinkle, 229-231.
Building a Rural Community, Eugene Smathers, 110-114.
Children Cooperate in School Improvement, K. D. Wann, 361-364.
Children Study Construction of Building, Fanchon Yeager, 123-125.
College Freshmen Study Their Environment, Hermann R. Muelder, 170-172.
Community Recreational Program for Youth, Elizabeth F. Cadle, 23-26.
Comparison of Viewpoint of Pupils and Educators, Paul W. Harnly, 126-128.
Comprehensive Concept of Evaluation: A Reply, Paul R. Grim, 32-35.
Concept of Need and the Curriculum, J. S. Kounin, 205-208.
Conference Reviews Virginia Curriculum Program, J. L. Blair Buck, 79-80.
Cooperative Curriculum Study in Santa Monica, M. Evan Morgan, 37-38.
County Program for Improving Instruction, W. F. Clapp, 184-186.
Course Building for Teachers of Agriculture, George P. Deyoe, 313-316.
Current Conflicts in the Curriculum, J. Paul Leonard, 298-302.
Curriculum Building at Fordson, Ervin Howard, 36-37.
Curriculum Changes in Alabama Secondary Schools, Gladstone H. Yeuell, 179-181.
Curriculum Development as Teacher Growth, Frederick J. Weersing, 166-169.
Curriculum Development in Quincy Public Schools, Bertrand L. Smith, 369-370.
Curriculum Implications of Motion Pictures, Charles F. Hoban, Jr., 365-368.
Curriculum Improvement in Wakefield, Michigan, Schools, John W. Thomas, 173-175.
Curriculum in Rural Schools, Genevieve Bowen, 80-81.
Curriculum Planning Through a Central Committee, Florence M. Gleitz, 213-215.
Curriculum Revision in a Diocesan System, Sister Mary De Paul, 132-133.
Curriculum Revision Promotes Teacher Growth, Ruth Henderson, 162-165.
Curriculum Study in Proviso Township High School, Florence B. Williams and E. R. Sifert, 81-83.
Democracy in the Classroom, Archie W. Troelstrup, 219-222.
Democracy in Administration, Oliver H. Bimson, 321-323.
Democratic Approach to Community Development, Ralph M. Lyon, 252-255.
Economic Education in the Elementary School, Ruth Wood Gavian, 11-14.
Education for Home and Family Life, 130-132.
Education for Vocations and College Life, Carl H. Waller, 157-161.
Eighth Grade Studies Homes, Sallie Lay, 19-22.
Elementary Curriculum Development Bureau in New York State, Helen Hay Heyl, 128-130.

Experience Curriculum for Young Children, Ruth Andrus, 259-262.
Experiment in Consumer Education, Hubert B. Risinger and C. Maurice Wieting, 323-325.
Functional Science for Grade Eleven, Edward L. Long, 209-212.
Functions of the Curriculum Bureau, Warren W. Knox, 76.
General Concepts Basic to the Curriculum, A. R. Mead, 69-71.
Getting Parental Opinion on the Curriculum, Richmond Barbour, 310-312.
How a School Determined Pupil Needs, A. H. Herzel, 358-360.
Internal Organization of the Curriculum, Hugh B. Wood, 61-65.
Journalism in High School, Laurence R. Campbell, 72-75.
Junior Colleges Study Terminal Education, Edward F. Mason, 231-232.
Latin America and the Curriculum, George I. Sanchez, 303-305.
Local Cooperation in Missouri Curriculum Program, L. A. Van Dyke, 30-32.
Meeting of the Executive Committee, J. Paul Leonard, 216-219.
NYA Residential Project, Claude L. Purcell, 325-327.
National Committee on Industrial Arts, M. M. Proffitt, 371-372.
National Defense and the School Curriculum, H. L. Caswell, 248-251.
Nebraska High School Program, F. E. Bowers, 35-36.
North Carolina Builds Curriculum Laboratory, J. Minor Gwynn, 77-79.
Operation of the Core Curriculum in Tulsa, Lavone Hanna, 66-68.
Oregon Reading Survey, Frank W. Parr, 370-371.
Pennsylvania Studies the Non-College Pupil, Oscar Granger, 270-271.
Place of Study in General Education, Paul R. Pierce, 119-122.
Place of the Core in the Curriculum, Helen Babson, 317-320.
Practical Program of Evaluation, J. Wayne Wrightstone, 306-309.
Preparing a Schedule for Comprehensive Evaluation, Hugh B. Wood, 267-269.
Report of the Executive Secretary, J. Paul Leonard, 181-184.
Research in Curriculum Development, W. B. Featherstone, 105-109.
Role of the Laboratory School in Curriculum Development, Reuben R. Palm, 350-353.
Santa Barbara City Schools Workshop, Lillian A. Lamoreaux, 27-29.
School-Community Cooperation and the Teacher, John B. Whitelaw, 201-204.
Semantics and the Educative Process, Charles I. Glicksberg, 354-357.
State-Wide Improvement of Teacher Education, W. Morrison McCall, 15-18.
Stimulating Teacher Growth, Clark H. Stone, 346-349.
Study Center as In-Service Training of Teachers, Bert R. Smith, 133-134.
"Study Group" Type of Meeting, W. H. Dutton, 274-275.
Subject Teachers Plan a Unified Curriculum, John J. DeBoer, 271-273.
Summer Workshops for Teachers, Kenneth L. Heaton, 152-156.
Survey of State Curriculum Programs, Tom Byrd Van Brunt, 227-229.
Teachers College Studies Its Environment, Cyril W. Grace, 256-258.
Teaching Some Principles of Democracy, Frederick Pistor, 7-10.
This Business of Writing for Teachers, Mildred Biddick, 56-60.
Two Approaches to High School Curriculum Revision, William R. Odell, 115-118.
Vocational Training for National Defense, Francis Gregory, 327-328.
What Is Wrong with Secondary School Subjects? Albert J. Huggett, 176-178.
Work Camps for America, Kenneth Holland, 224-227.

REVIEWS AND CURRICULUM RESEARCH

Anderson, D. Owens—The Development of the Public Schools of the State of Kentucky with Particular Reference to Curriculums (Rolfe Lanier Hunt), 276-277.
Axtelle, George E. and Wattenberg, William W., Editors—Teachers for Democracy (W. E. Peik), 234-236.
Baker, Clara Belle and Others—Curriculum Records of the Children's School (John A. Hockett), 332-333.
Bode, B. H.—How We Learn (John L. Childs), 279-280.
Boyer, Lee Emerson—College General Mathematics for Prospective Secondary School Teachers (W. E. Cannon), 86.
Broening, Angela M. and Others—Conducting Experiences in English (Lou LaBrant), 141-142.
Brunley, Oscar V. and Charters, W. W.—A Curriculum in Veterinary Medicine (Mark Ellingson), 281-282.
Butts, R. Freeman—The College Charts Its Course—Historical Conceptions and Current Proposals (Mowat G. Fraser), 280-281.
Cary, Miles Elwood—Integration and the High School Curriculum (B. O. Smith), 39.
Clapp, Elsie Ripley—Community Schools in Action (Samuel Everett), 139-140.
Colvert, Clyde C.—The Public Junior College Curriculum, 136-137.

Commission on Secondary School Curriculum —Language in General Education (Holland D. Roberts), 236-237.
Courses and Enrollments in Missouri High Schools, 84-85.
Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction—Newer Instructional Practices of Promise (Fred B. Painter), 237-238.
Dix, Lester—A Charter for Progressive Education (Harold Alberty), 88-89.
Dodds, B. L.—That All May Learn (William L. Wrinkle), 187-188.
Eskridge, L. J., Jr.—Growth in Understanding of Geographic Terms in Grades IV to VII (B. O. Smith), 41.
Gans, Roma—A Study of Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades (Paul Witty), 373-374.
Hunt, Rolfe Lanier—A Study of Factors Influencing the Public School Curriculum of Kentucky (Adolph A. Klautsch), 135-136.
Jones, Arthur J., Grizzell, E. D., and Grinstead, W. J.—Principles of Unit Construction (J. Paul Leonard and James B. Burr), 89-91.
Karr, Harrison M.—An Investigation of the Speech Activities in the High Schools of Los Angeles County, with Special Attention to the Effects of an Integrated Program upon the Aims, Methods, and Results of Speech Training (B. O. Smith), 85-86.
Katona, George—Organizing and Memorizing (A. H. Turney), 376.
Kilpatrick, William H.—Group Education for a Democracy (W. Carson Ryan), 376-377.
Lack, Eleanor—Literature for Two-Year-Old Children (B. O. Smith), 39.
Lawson, Douglas E.—Curriculum Development in City School Systems (C. C. Trillingham), 277-278.
Lee, J. Murray and Lee, Dorris May—The Child and His Curriculum (Ralph D. Russell), 233-234.
McCoy, Raymond F.—A Decade of Modern Novels as Material for Socialized Curriculum (John J. DeBoer), 374.
Mantor, Marjorie—An Objective Method for Recording Three- and Four-Year-Old Children's Enjoyment of Stories, Particularly Applied to a Study of Fanciful and Realistic Stories (B. O. Smith), 40.
Michener, James A., Editor—The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social-Studies Curriculum (William M. Alexander), 91.
Morrison, Henry C.—The Curriculum of the Common School (J. G. Umstattd), 330-332.
National Society of College Teachers of Education—The Study of College Instruction (Mowat G. Fraser), 87-88.
Newlon, Jesse H.—Education for Democracy in Our Times (B. H. Bode), 138-139.
Phillips, Burr W., (Editor) — In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers (Paul R. Grim), 188-189.
Principles of Unit Construction: A Reply (Mary A. Leal), 282-283.
Retardation Points to Need for Curriculum Adjustment, 135.
Reynolds, Martha May—Children from Seed to Saplings (Helen Hay Heyl), 43-44.
Russell, Harry James—Trends and Techniques in the Construction of Reading Materials for the Modern Foreign Languages (B. O. Smith), 40-41.
Spafford, Ivol—A Functioning Program of Home Economics (W. B. Featherstone), 333-334.
Spears, Harold—The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction (William B. Brown), 189-190.
Sprague, H. A.—A Decade of Progress in the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers (C. L. Cushman), 329.
Study of Physical Education and Recreation, 278.
Thayer, V. T., Zachry, Caroline B., and Kotinsky, Ruth — Reorganizing Secondary Education (Aubrey A. Douglass), 42-43.
Tyler, I. Keith—Spelling as a Secondary Learning (B. O. Smith), 44-45.
Washburne, Carleton—A Living Philosophy of Education (William H. Kilpatrick), 375-376.

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